THE IMPACT OF SELECTED TEACHER VARIABLES AND SCHOOL CLIMATE ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN READING AND MATHEMATICS OF AT-RISK STUDENTS

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TINY FITZGERALD DAVIS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

DAVIS, TINY FITZGERALD B.A. Fort Valley State, 1966
M. A. Georgia State, 1975
ED. S. GEORGIA STATE, 1981

THE IMPACT OF SELECTED TEACHER VARIABLES AND SCHOOL CLIMATE ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN READING AND MATHEMATICS OF AT-RISK LOW-INCOME STUDENTS

Advisor: Dr. Phillip Bradley

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This study investigated relationships and differences among the independent variables--the teacher's locus of control, teacher's expectations of students, teacher's job satisfaction, teacher's knowledge of the at-risk low-income students, the school's climate, and teacher's biographical data--the effect these variables have on the dependent variables which are the achievement scores in reading and math.

Participants in this study (N=47) involved first-grade teachers from a stratified population of teachers who taught at schools where at least 90% of the children were from low-income families in a large urban school system. To secure data for the variables all teachers responded to two instruments, Brookover's School Learning Climate Assessment and the researcher's original questionnaire, entitled The Locus of Control, Expectations and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire.

The design that was used for this research was inferential statistics which included the use of descriptive statistics, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, and a nonparametric Chi square analysis (Kruskal-Wallis test). The .05 level was used to test the null hypotheses.

The major findings of this study were: (a) there is a relationship among the student's achievement in reading, on the one hand, and the teacher's locus of control, teacher's expectations, and teacher's knowledge of the at-risk low-income student, on the other; (b) there is a relationship between the student's achievement in math and the teacher's knowledge of the at-risk low-income student; (c) there is no relationship between reading achievement and the independent variables of job satisfaction and school climate; (d) differences in teacher's biographical data made no differences in their students' reading and math achievement; (e) there is no relationship between the teacher variables and school climate; and (f) inverse relationships exist between the dependent variables and the independent variables of teacher's knowledge and school climate.

Based on these findings, the following recommendations were made: (a) more research is needed in the area of locus of control as it pertains to student achievement; and (b) staff development activities should be provided for administrators to increase their understanding of what factors are essential for teachers to effectively teach at-risk low-income students.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM SITUATION

The Research Problem

In recent years, many studies have been made of the problems of educating children and youth in the United States. One of these, done by Cuban (1989), determined the future impact of the nation's inner-city schools as a primary issue. Since a large proportion of students is served by these schools, the issue has become an important one to educators, politicians, legislators, and the general public.

One of the major problems affecting inner-city schools is the dropout rate of students. The National Coalition of Advocates for Students did a study (1988) based on public testimony and extensive review of the literature. In that study, it was found that the rising number of dropouts is the single most dramatic indicator of the degree to which schools are failing children. The study further reveals that one in every four students who enrolls in ninth grade drops out before high school graduation. The Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families (1989) reported that in 1989 between 750,000 and 950,000, or 25% of United States high school students, left public school without graduation. In 1987, 700,000 students graduated but were as deficient in basic skills and work habits as most dropouts. The Children's Defense Fund (Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families, 1989)

estimated that between now and the year 2000 one in seven of today's pre-schoolers is "at-risk" of dropping out of school.

Because the number of at-risk students is increasing each year, intervention strategies must be developed by educators to ensure that these students and all others are provided with the opportunity to learn. Although many intervention strategies have been used with at-risk students, the most important factor in effective programs for at-risk students is the teacher. The teachers of these students should be sensitive, caring, understanding, and positive in establishing desired rapport with students. Since some teachers and some schools are more capable than others of serving the needs of at-risk students, this study sought to identify specific personal characteristics that strengthen a teacher's effectiveness with at-risk students. This study also sought to determine if school environment influences either the selected teacher variables or achievement test results of at-risk students.

The Research Questions

The following questions guided this research:

1. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and student reading achievement?
2. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and student mathematics achievement?
3. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's expectations of students and student reading achievement?

4. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's expectations of students and student mathematics achievement?
5. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student reading achvement?
6. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student mathematics achievement?
7. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of "at-risk" students and student reading achievement?
8. Is there a significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of "at-risk" students and student mathematics achievement?
9. Is there a significant relationship between school climate and student reading achievement?
10. Is there a significant relationship between school climate and student mathematics achievement?
11. Is there a significant difference in achievement in reading of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared to that of those taught by less experienced teachers?
12. Is there a significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared with that of those taught by less experienced teachers?
13. Is there a significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers?

14. Is there a significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers?
15. Is there a significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree?
16. Is there a significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree?
17. Is there a significant relationship between school climate and the selected teacher variables (locus of control, teacher's expectations, job satisfaction and knowledge of the at-risk low-income student).

Limitations of the Study

The development of an instrument that measures attitudes has according to Best (1970), many limitations. The respondents may conceal their real attitude and express what they feel is socially acceptable. Also, individuals may be unable to know their true attitude about a situation in the abstract. This study is also limited because the data are based only on the perceptions of teachers who responded to the Locus of Control, Expectations and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (LEJ)

and Brookover's School Learning Climate Assessment Instruments. The questions on the LEJ questionnaire that related to knowledge were not testing the teachers' knowledge of at-risk children.

Definition of Terms

1. At-risk low income students: those students from low-income families, living in inner-city neighborhoods, and attending a school in which 90% of the population is made up of low-income children.
2. Locus of control: a teacher's perception of control over a situation.
3. Job satisfaction: a teacher's perception of how well professional on-the-job needs, expectations, and desires are fulfilled.
4. Expectations of students: how a teacher feels about the ability of students to perform academically.

The Educational Context of the Problem

The problem of how to effectively educate poor and low-income youngsters has been with us for many years, and there have been several relatively recent attempts to cope with it. These efforts have included projects such as the Higher Horizons Program in New York City Great Cities Gray Area School Improvement Programs. The Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA) of 1981 (formerly the Title I Program) is the most recognized plan for meeting the educational needs of poor children (Edelman, 1988; Plunkett, 1985; Stickney &

Marcus, 1985; Stickney & Plunkett, 1983). Head Start and Chapter I are the two most important intervention programs implemented as a result of ECIA. Although both programs have made substantial progress in narrowing the achievement gap of low-income children, the gap has not been eliminated (Edelman, 1988).

Our nation is now facing one of the greatest challenges in its history, the challenge to eliminate our current educational disaster and to reclaim for the future our children at-risk (Cuban, 1989). According to the staff report of the Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families (1989), almost one million children are leaving our public schools each year as dropouts. Most are marginally literate and unemployable. Others graduate but lack the literacy level and skills they need to qualify for productive employment. The problem of children at-risk, K-5, is a vexing one because, as most classroom teachers will admit, the problem is not so much identifying the child as remedying the child's proverty of experience, which is often just as crippling as any economic poverty (Peck, 1988).

Despite the current emphasis in our state and nation on educational reform and effective schools, the needs of urban minority students have not been met. According to Maeroff (1988), the reforms have either totally bypassed big-city school districts or have produced changes that have lengthened the time for instruction or raised requirements for

diplomas without addressing the underlying circumstances that lead to failure for these students.

Maeroff (1988) further notes that part of the difficulty of the at-risk child lies in the teaching. For every capable and inspirational teacher, too often there is another unequipped to teach at-risk children. The context of this study included the effect of the teacher's locus of control, job satisfaction, teacher's expectations of students, knowledge of the at-risk student, and school climate on the academic achievement of at-risk low-income students.

Ample research has documented the relationship between school environment and the behavior of students and teachers. An improved school climate is associated with higher student achievement, better student behavior, and increased morale of students and staff (Lindelow & Mazzarella, 1985 and Epstein, 1983). Research has also shown that as school climate becomes more positive, attendance and academic achievement improve, while discipline problems, vandalism, and violence decline (Howard, 1978; Lindelow & Mazzarella, 1985; and Miller, 1981).

This relationship has also been noted by Brandt (1986); Brantley (1988); Brookover, et. al. (1979); Edmonds (1979); Halpin and Croft (1963); and Russell (1988).

Halpin and Croft (1963) contended in their landmark study that in schools that have positive and open climates student achievement and faculty morale and satisfaction are all high. Comer stated in his

interview with Brandt (1986) that one of the most important factors in academic achievement of low-income, predominantly minority children is a positive school climate. According to Comer, the right kind of climate is needed for these students to learn because their learning depends upon the attitudes of the authority figures. Comer also stressed the fact that a climate must be developed within the school that will allow teachers to have high expectations of their students. In his studies, the same teacher who worked in chaotic conditions and had low expectations for students developed high expectations when working in a desirable and supportive climate.

In 1985 the Georgia General Assembly recognized this impact of school climate on achievement by including a school climate program in the Quality Basic Education (QBE) Act. Section 20-2-155(a) of the QBE Act states that the State Board of Education shall establish a statewide School Climate Program to help local schools and systems requesting assistance in developing school climate improvement and management processes.

Some research has focused on the influence of high faculty and staff expectations on student achievement (Hook, 1985; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Murphy, 1988; and Winfield, 1985). Rosenthal and Jacobson discovered that teachers "found" improvement in the work of students whose previous test scores supposedly predicted improvement, even when such predictions were simply random choices by the researchers.

Winfield's conclusions (1986) involved grouping teachers into four categories based on their expectations of students and the extent to which they wanted to assume the responsibility for the learning of their at-risk students.

Murphy (1988) cited a study done by a Maryland school system in which efforts to improve the achievement of minority students revealed one major underlying cause of the gap in white and black achievement, this cause being the negative attitudes of teachers towards the potential of black students.

Murphy (1988), Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), and Winfield (1986) suggest that more attention should be focused on teachers in educational research. If it could be determined how teachers are able to bring about dramatic improvement in the performance of their students without formal changes in methods of teaching, other teachers could be taught to do the same. The studies of these investigators also suggest that if additional research shows that it is possible to find teachers whose untrained educational style does for their students what teachers do for special children, then combining sophisticated teacher selection of teachers with suitable teacher training would help all children get as much as they can out of their schooling.

Another variable that is crucial in the educational process, especially of at-risk students, is teachers' satisfaction with their jobs. Most major theorists (such as Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg, and McClelland) stress

the importance of creating the conditions in which the individual can fulfill his own needs while achieving organizational goals (Lau, 1975). Teachers who have high morale and are satisfied with their jobs have positive attitudes that provide the drive to relate effectively with other people. These teachers are more likely to be motivated and tend to work harder (Hoy and Miskel, 1982). Westbrook's study (1988) to determine the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and productivity was consistent with Maslow and Herzberg's theories. Analysis of Westbrook's data revealed that the level of satisfaction was related to productivity.

Howard's study (1986) showed a strong relationship between a personality variable of teachers, locus of control and the climate of the school. His findings suggested that there was a need for an increased understanding of the relationship between the psychology of educator and school effectiveness.

Significance of Study

Because every child can learn, and many of the at-risk students are not learning, the researcher felt it significant and crucial that the failure of at-risk students be explored. Because many of these students who do not drop out of school stay on and achieve at low levels, this study will add to the literature of teacher variables and their influence on student achievement.

Allington (1983) observed that we have much information about the results of instruction as measured by standardized tests but very little

information about actual classroom practices. He urged that more descriptive research be done in order to reduce speculation about why programs fail and to discover the relationship between instructional input and educational outcomes. This study is designed to fit into Allington's parameters.

In practice, much of the corrective and remedial teaching in our schools is done by regular classroom teachers. Principals need to understand that if at-risk children are going to achieve there must be certain factors present in the teachers' make-up and in the school environment, with the teacher's job satisfaction a crucial link between these two variables. Also, teachers should understand the problems of at-risk low-income students and the powerful influence that an educator's high expectations can have on their behavior.

Summary

The teaching role is critical in the transfer to students of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Students, however, must want to learn, and at the same time have the basic knowledge and skills necessary to acquire new learning (Allington, 1983). The motivation to learn and the prior mastery of basic skills are the function of a quality curriculum and the students' background. The school principal must be able to interpret the teaching and learning process, and the teacher must be able to behave in ways that will increase student performance.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This review is designed to show the relationship of previous research on a teacher's knowledge of the at-risk low-income student, teacher's expectations of students, teacher's locus of control, teacher's job satisfaction, school climate, and student achievement. This research serves as a foundation for this study.

Knowledge of the At-Risk Low-Income Student

Cardenas and McCarty's (1985) article summarized the findings of a year-long study that was done by an independent Board of Inquiry commissioned by the National Coalition of Advocates for Students (NCAS) to investigate the status of children of greatest need in public schools.

Their findings indicated that, although low income at-risk students have more opportunities to attend more public schools of choice today than twenty years ago, there is a lack of commitment to making these students successful once they are in school. The Board prepared a report, "Barriers to Excellence: Our Children at Risk." Cardenas and McCarty (1985) summarized the Board's findings and presented some of the most important recommendations for change. The significant findings were as follows:

1. Teachers often alter expectations on the basis of students' social class.

2. Only 3% of teachers are adequately prepared to instruct students with limited proficiency in English.

3. Untrained teachers, inadequate instructional materials, invalid testing, and a lack of administrative support often characterize the special language-responsive programs that are made available to a few of the non-English proficient population.

4. Minority students who perform adequately in a variety of family and community roles but experience scholastic difficulty in school are most likely to be misclassified.

The same report identified 104 strategies for achieving public schools that are both excellent and fair to at-risk low income students. The report recommended that the curriculum and teaching practices of students who are failing, be altered and adjusted to meet their diverse needs.

Jennings' (1987) article sought to underscore the urgency of meeting the needs of key groups of students, such as the socio-economically disadvantaged and language-minority students. According to Jennings, Hodgkinson of the American Council on Education and others have emphasized that 20% of the students currently in public elementary and secondary schools are economically disadvantaged. As a group, these students do least well in school as compared with advantaged students.

During the same year Benson (1987) published a study that explored the characteristics and commonalities associated with the at-

risk students. He described at-risk students in the elementary schools as those students who have high potential for dropping out before completing high school. After reviewing methods and techniques used by elementary school principals in their schools to discourage students from dropping out, this study examined several alternatives and possibilities to further the academic, social, and psychological gains of these same students. An analysis of the data suggested several effective methods of improving the academic and social gains of students at risk: increasing personal contact and positive interaction by the elementary school classroom teacher, principal and other staff members; early identifying and treating for at-risk students; establishing early pre-school education; promoting a positive school climate by creating specific school goals; having high expectations for all students; and the principal's constant monitoring of student progress and activities. Benson's findings indicated that, although the teacher was important, the principal was the key figure in the academic and social gains of at-risk students.

Maeroff (1988) noted that urban schools must do more to entice these children into the mainstream by counteracting the isolation of their lives. These students are surrounded by failure both in an out of school. The isolation suffered by these students is underscored from the moment they enter school, and little happens in many homes or schools to build confidence in their educational abilities. We must therefore get students who have no history of achievement to believe in themselves. Maeroff

found that a teacher who asks too much of students who have not been equipped to meet the demands, may not only be unrealistic, but may also be setting students up for frustration and failure. On the other hand, many disadvantaged students interpret the absence of any high expectations for their work as an absence of the belief that they can do the work. Uninspired teaching takes a terrible toll on students who are already unmotivated. The lack of success of disadvantaged students in urban schools is so prevalent that the students are frequently expected to fail.

Ralph (1989) emphasized that disadvantaged youths do not all have identical needs. He also noted that disengaged youngsters who are alienated from the normal demands of learning will require different techniques from those who are eager to learn but are behind in their work. Some educationally disadvantaged youths have specific and remediable problems, while others are at risk only because of their socio-economic profile. Ralph pointed out that a report from the Urban Superintendents Network cited poor academic performance as the single best predictor of which student drops out. Therefore, according to Ralph, increasing students' academic performance helps improve the drop-out rate. Frymier and Gansneder (1989) pointed out that the three most potent factors causing students to be at risk are retention in school, performance at the 20th percentile or below on standardized achievement tests, and low self-esteem. Any combination of these factors

can be devastating to a student. This finding has profound implications for the educator seeking to improve the achievement of at-risk students.

Teacher's Expectation of Students

In their classic study, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) explored the effect of teacher expectations with experiments in which teachers were led to believe at the beginning of a school year that certain of their students could be expected to show considerable academic improvement during the year. The teachers thought the predictions were based on tests that had been administered to the student body. In actuality the children designated as potential "spurters" had been chosen at random and not on the basis of testing.

The central concept behind Rosenthal and Jacobson's investigation was that of the "self-fulfilling prophecy." The essence of this concept is that one person's prediction of another person's behavior somehow comes to be realized. The prediction may, of course, be realized only in the perception of the predictor. It is also possible, however, that the predictor's expectation is communicated to the other person, perhaps in quite subtle and unintended ways, and so has an influence on his actual behavior.

Rosenthal and Jacobson's experiments rested on the premise that at least some of the deficiencies, and therefore at least some of the remedies, might be in the schools and particularly in the attitudes of teachers toward disadvantaged children. In their experiment nothing was

done directly for the child. There was no innovative program to improve his reading ability, no extra time for tutoring, no program to improve his reading ability, no extra time for tutoring, no scheduling of trips to museums and art galleries. The only stimulation was inflated test results and/or information about students. The only people affected directly were the teachers; any effect on the children was indirect.

Hook's study (1985) investigated teacher expectations and student mislabelling by focusing on students' prior mathematics achievement, verbal ability (reading achievement), demographic and personality characteristics, family background, teacher attitudes, and classroom interaction.

The subjects in Hook's study were four fourth grade teachers and their classes (a total of 70 students) in two inner-city schools. Teacher expectations were represented by teachers' ranking of students on expected achievement in mathematics. The concept of mislabelling was defined by Hook as over-or under-estimation of student achievement in mathematics. Prior achievement in mathematics and reading were measured by the Stanford Achievement Test at the beginning of the school year. Teacher attitudes towards children were measured using scales of attachment, concern, familiarity (indifference) and rejection. Mathematics lessons were observed over a continuous period of two weeks using the Brophy-Good dynamic interaction system. The findings of this study were:

1. There were groups of children who were over--and under--estimated in achievement by teachers.

2. Mislabelling was significantly predicted by students' verbal ability, student characteristics, and teacher-student interaction.

3. Teacher expectations were significantly predicted by student characteristics, teacher attitudes, and classroom interaction.

Winfield (1986) provided a descriptive analysis of teacher beliefs concerning "at-risk" students in a sample of five inner-urban schools in a metropolitan district. All five schools served predominantly minority and low-income students. He interviewed forty elementary school teachers who differed in race and grade level taught and who were selected to represent potentially differing perspectives within the school organization. These perspectives included "effective and noneffective" teachers, teachers new to the school, and teachers who had been in the school setting for a number of years. All of the teachers who were interviewed taught in classrooms where the student population was from 98-100% black. From data collected, Winfield constructed a case study narrative for each school in the sample. Data concerning teacher beliefs were taken from case study narratives of teachers in all school sites.

Winfield's interview protocol was used as a guide to probe for teacher's perceptions regarding goals of instruction; roles of the principal, reading teacher, and other personnel in the school reading program; coordination of instruction; attitudes toward student learning;

and effort expended in classroom instruction. Results indicated that teacher beliefs toward academically "at-risk" students could be categorized as to whether teachers believed some type of instructional assistance was needed to improve the achievement of these students or whether the teachers ignored the students' low levels of performance. Results also reflected the teacher's specific behaviors and practices in working with academically at-risk students. These behaviors were categorized by whether teachers assumed the responsibility for improving instruction or shifted the responsibility to others.

According to Winfield (1986), teachers can be placed into four categories. The first category, who have the characteristics of effective teachers, indicated that it was their responsibility to provide the instruction necessary to improve the reading achievement of the bottom reading groups. The second category includes teachers who felt that remedial instruction was needed, but it was not necessarily their responsibility because the student received remedial services outside of the classroom. These teachers felt their responsibility was to distribute their remedial students to other individuals who were responsible for improving their achievement. The third category of teachers believed that there was little or nothing that could be done to improve the performance of academically at-risk students. These teachers were primarily concerned with maintaining rather than improving their students' low levels of achievement. Teachers in Winfield's fourth category shifted the teaching

responsibility to others; these teachers felt that at-risk students were generally incapable of learning in a classroom situation or in supplementary programs and commonly referred such students for psychological testing or special education. From Winfield's study one might generalize similar categories of teachers in regard to their locus of control and expectations of at risk students.

C. Scott (1987) explored the relationships among student socio-economic (SES) status and student-teacher-principal expectations and then attributed responsibility for learning and achievement. Scott selected a sample of 76 public elementary schools in Louisiana that included 76 principals, 250 teachers, and 5,289 third-grade students. In the study, three theoretical models were developed and tested. The models explored the relationship between achievement and a combination of student socio-economic status, expectations and attributed responsibility. The effect of student SES on expectations was significant in all three models, but in the student model it was a negative predictor. Expectations were significant predictors of achievement in the student and principal models but not in the teacher models. Attribution of responsibility was a significant predictor of achievement only in the student model.

Scott's findings (1987) suggested that even though student SES is a strong predictor of achievement, there are variations of student, teacher, and principal perceptions of expectations and attributions of

responsibility that do affect achievement. This determination may be useful in bringing about improvement in the effectiveness of schools. Scott's conclusions may be generalized that ar-risk students have high achievement when the teacher has high expectations.

The relationship among attributional feedback, expectations for future success, and academic achievement for older elementary students was investigated by Childress (1987). The subjects in his study were fourth and fifth graders in a public urban elementary school who were randomly assigned to four groups. An intensive interactive computerized math curriculum was used as the intervention. The program provided various types of attributional feedback to students, depending on their group placement. After the intervention was completed, Childress measured expectancies for success, achievement, and causal attributions for success and failure. Childress found a strong positive correlation between expectancies for success and academic achievement. From Childress's study it can also be generalized that there is a strong correlation between the achievement of at-risk disadvantaged students and teacher expectations.

Teachers' expectations and behavior towards children from one-parent families were studied by Friedlander (1988). Subjects for his study consisted of 120 teachers who responded to both the academic and social adjustment of children from one-parent families. There were significant main effects found on the Teacher Expectations Instrument

on the basis of the child's behavioral adjustment in school and on the basis of the child's gender. Teachers recorded higher expectations for all children who were described as displaying appropriate behavior in the classroom and for girls, across all conditions.

Friedlander also observed children from both one-and two-parent families in their classroom interactions with their teachers. Children from one-parent families were found to be off-task a greater number of times and were more likely to be off-task when instruction was taking place as compared to children from two-parent families. There was a greater likelihood that teachers disapproved of the behaviors of children from one-parent families even when the students were attending to task. Friedlander concluded that teachers' expectations were not affected by the child's family status.

According to Murphy (1988), the achievement of minority students can be improved. He reported that a Maryland School System developed a task force to study this problem because of the 1984 school year's gap in standardized test scores between blacks and whites. The task force examined students' grades, attendance, test scores, and participation in extra-curricular activities. After examining these four factors, the task force found that the main underlying cause of the gap in white and black achievement was teachers' negative attitudes about the potential of black students.

To discontinue this negativism, the task force drafted a plan to create higher expectations for all minority students from kindergarten through twelfth grade. This plan included altering all elements of the school system's program to emphasize the academic achievement of black and Hispanic students. Murphy reported that by 1985 the school system had launched in all 171 schools an effective campaign with the slogan, "All Students Can Learn," regardless of race, gender, or socio-economic status. With this change in attitude about the potential of black students, the gap in achievement was narrowed.

The astounding fact of this study was that the third graders at a predominantly black and single-parent family school scored at the 99th percentile in math on the CAT. The same third graders also had an overall score of 94%, as compared with their white counterparts, who had an overall score of 83%.

Murphy noted that the gains in minority achievement in this study are proof that the proper attitude and support of educators along with the appropriate environment are necessary to achieve gains for those students who have so often been low achievers.

Another way of improving the performance of at-risk students concerns their alienation from school. Firestone (1989) sought to find the chief causes of alienation in at-risk, disadvantaged high-school students. The primary findings suggest that while order and high expectations are important, an expanded view of school effectiveness must

be taken if we are to serve at-risk students well. Many teachers in urban high schools are trapped in positions they do not want, but cannot afford to leave, complaining of burnout and, in the worst cases, retiring on the job. Their disengagement feeds the alienation of students and is in turn reinforced by it. To alleviate alienation, Firestone places emphasis on order and expectations when accompanied equally with respect and relevance for students and professionalism for teachers.

Firestone's rank order correlation between teacher alienation and student alienation showed that students had clear yet complex ideas about what constituted a good teacher. According to the data, effective teachers were described as fun, caring, devoted, patient, intelligent, a role model, expressive and personal, making the work interesting, explaining the lesson over when the students did not understand the first time, and respecting the students. It can be generalized from Firestone's study that there is a positive relationship between the achievement of "at-risk" students, school climate, teacher expectations, and job satisfactions.

Bailey (1989) examined possible relationships between elementary teacher expectations about student academic achievement and a number of selected variables. Analysis of Bailey's data revealed that black teacher respondents generally held higher expectations for their students' overall academic achievement than did their white counterparts. Bailey's findings suggest that the teacher's race and the school setting may be

important variables to consider relative to teacher expectation issues and concerns about both short-and long-term student academic achievement.

Teacher's Locus of Control

Certain factors believed to motivate teachers to improve teaching performance were studied by Picard (1986) by measuring and comparing the perceptions of public classroom teachers and school officials. Picard selected the motivational factors, financial considerations, intrinsic considerations, and recognition considerations as the dependent variables. Also, answers to certain circumstantial aspects of teachers and the relationship those personal situations had to motivational needs were determined. The study also sought to answer the question, How do motivational factors change for teachers at different career stages?

Picard's data indicated that teachers in age groups 21-30 and 36-40 scored higher in motivation than did teachers in the age group 41-45. This finding could assist school officials in gaining a better understanding of factors that motivate teachers.

In many instances, teacher motivation has been found to be linked to the teacher's commitment to the organization and its goals. Perhla (1986) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between teacher motivation expressed in the perceived achievement of individual professional needs, organizational commitment, and assessed performance among parochial school teachers.

Perhla's major findings noted that the relationship between motivation expressed in the perceived achievement of individual professional needs and organizational commitment was positive, and a significant portion of teacher performance can be predicted from motivation expressed in the perceived achievement of individual professional needs and organizational commitment. It can be assumed from Perhla's (1986) study that teachers with an internal locus of control will take on more responsibility in trying to increase the achievement of at-risk students.

R. D. Scott (1987) sought to identify individual factors in the motivation of elementary school teachers and to discover to what extent are there differences in these factors among various subgroups of teachers. The subjects for this study were of forty teachers, who supplied eighty positive and eighty negative incidents.

An analysis of the data produced the following three findings:

1. Factors which tend to positively motivate teachers under one set of circumstances may tend to negatively motivate them under a different set of circumstances.

2. Interpersonal relations with peers, parents, principal, district and school policy and administration, and discipline significantly affected negative teacher motivation and achievement.

3. Interpersonal relations with peers, parents, and other adults significantly affected recognition and positive teacher motivation.

R. D. Scott concluded that positive motivation stems from doing the job (intrinsic motivation) while negative motivation is related to the work environment (extrinsic factors). Scott further concluded that experiences with significant others plays a key role in teacher motivation and influences teacher effectiveness. Principals who work to eliminate negative factors are at the same time providing conditions for potential positive teacher motivation.

According to R. D. Scott (1986) motivation can be measured only by its effect, and it must affect teachers on an individual basis. If principals are to motivate teachers, they must know them and their work. Principals can be most effective by setting high expectations for accomplishment of organizational goals and reinforcing teachers' efforts. Scott's study emphasizes the assumption that teachers who work in a positive school climate will more than likely be satisfied with their job and exemplify an internal locus of control.

When Youngblood (1986) examined how principals affect student learning through teacher motivation, the goal was to analyze the differences in teacher motivation scores for schools that were grouped by student achievement. Youngblood predicted CRT scores based on socio-economic status and then used these scores to produce residuals for grouping schools. The results of Youngblood's study indicate that research linking teacher motivation to measures of student achievement may be contradictory.

Relationships between a teacher's internal-external locus of control and preferred methods of student control were examined by Howard. (1986), who discovered that teachers and administrators with an internal locus of control prefer humanistic pupil control and educators with an external locus of control tend to be custodian in pupil control. Also, the higher the educational degree held by teacher's the more apt they are to have an internal locus of control and exhibit humanistic student control. Teachers with greater years of experience demonstrated a proportionate increase in custodialism of student control. The study also discovered that female teachers have a more internal locus of control and are more humanistic in student control than their male counterparts and that, as the grade level taught by the educator increases, a corresponding increase in external locus of control and custodial student control was noted.

Howard's study suggests the existence of a strong relationship between a personality variable of educators (locus of control) and the social climate of the school as exemplified by the teacher's student control practice. The implication is that the school's climate and the teacher's biography may influence the teacher's locus of control and its affect on the student.

According to Hamilton (1988) locus of control is the degree to which people perceive their control over situations. "Internals" interpret reinforcements following their actions as contingent upon their own

characteristics or behaviors, whereas "externals" perceive reinforcements as a result of luck, chance, or of forces outside their control. Therefore, Hamilton designed a study to determine if task satisfaction and productivity are affected by locus of control under different planning conditions.

One group of internals, one group of externals, and one mixed group consisting of two internals and two externals each, accomplished a problem-solving task involving three planning conditions. The major findings were as follows:

1. Externals perform better when given a plan for solving the task.

2. Externals derive most of their job satisfaction with simply performing their tasks.

3. Internals are more satisfied when they are given the opportunity to decide on what is to be done to accomplish the task.

4. Groups composed of internals and externals are the most effective, but the least efficient when given the opportunity to develop a plan for solving the task.

5. Groups having no opportunity to develop a plan for solving the task are more efficient than groups given a plan.

6. Groups having no opportunity to develop a plan for solving the task are more effective than groups having the opportunity to develop a plan.

7. Groups composed of internals and externals are more effective and more efficient than internals when given a plan for solving the task.

Teachers differ not only in behavior because of their level of job satisfaction but also in the method by which they initiate behaviors and responses to success and failure. Part of the difference, according to Coleman (1988), is due to teachers' perception of how they influence their environment. He contends that individuals who believe that they are in control of their environment have an inner motivation that causes them to out-perform their counterpart. These individuals are said to possess an internal locus of control. Those individuals who do not have this inner drive that are called "externals".

Teacher's Job Satisfaction

Van Putten's analysis (1987) of the relationship among a school's communication system, job satisfaction, and work motivation was based on 200 secondary teachers for whom demographic information was obtained along with their level of job satisfaction. The demographic factors of teacher's age, years of teaching experience, and grade level taught were correlated with job satisfaction. Van Putten also discovered significant differences between job satisfaction and grade level taught, and between job satisfaction and years of teaching experience.

Van Putten concluded that there was a significant relationship between communication satisfaction and job satisfaction, suggesting that administrators could increase job satisfaction and communication satisfaction and job satisfaction, communication satisfaction could be a mea-

sure of job satisfaction. Van Putten's study suggests that school climate affects teachers' job satisfaction.

Taylor (1986) conducted a descriptive study to determine how elements of Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory were perceived as being met in school employment. To gather data Taylor used an instrument that listed each of the sixteen job factors in Herzberg's theory and included areas to record the subjects' various biographical data. Each job factor was analyzed with regard to the group as a whole and with regard to selected biographical information including sex, years of teaching experience, job position, and degree held by subject. Taylor's study revealed that there was no significant difference between subjects with M.A. degrees and those with B.A. degrees with regard to any job factor. Subjects with the most years of teaching experience tended more often to perceive job factors as contributing to their job satisfaction than subjects with fewer years of teaching experience.

Young (1989) examined the overall job satisfaction and satisfactions with various job and workplace characteristics of 159 teachers in a K-8 public school district. The main objectives of Young's study were to identify the major satisfiers and dissatisfies of the teaching job and to ascertain which background characteristics and work facet satisfactions provide the greatest prediction of overall job satisfaction. Four main job satisfaction dimensions (intrinsic, leadership, school climate, and

resource adequacy) were revealed through the analysis measured by the survey instrument.

Young noted that the most satisfying aspects of teaching related to interactions and successes with students. Dissatisfiers were those working conditions which diminished teacher effectiveness. According to Young's study, among the greatest predictors of overall job satisfaction were a sense of challenge, resource adequacy, opportunity to be creative, and having altruistic reasons for entering teaching. One can assume from Young's study that teachers who can deal successfully with at risk students will probably have internal locus of controls and receive job satisfaction from being able to cope with the challenge of the job.

Sciacca (1988) analyzed the level of job satisfaction of subjects according to gender, ethnicity, age, prior work experience, and the socioeconomic level of the school in which they were employed. Sciacca concluded that university-certified, first-year teachers experienced greater job satisfaction than did alternatively certified first-year teachers. Race appeared to be a factor in the level of job satisfaction experienced. The school's socioeconomic level and teachers' age (until thirty-nine or older) did not appear to be a factor in the level of job satisfaction experienced.

Owens (1988) determined the relationship of teacher self-concept and job satisfaction to student achievement in grades one and four by dividing teachers into high or low job satisfaction groups.

No relationship was observed between the teachers' level of job satisfaction and achievement in fourth-grade or first-grade students.

Westbrook (1988) investigated whether a relationship existed between teachers' job satisfaction and productivity. Specific teacher groups related by demographics were examined for trends in job dissatisfaction and their preference for extrinsic, intrinsic, or ancillary rewards.

Results were analyzed specifically by age groups, levels of formal education, and years of teaching experience. Data revealed that the level of satisfaction was determined to be related to productivity. Satisfaction with one's school was the best predictor of the productivity. Westbrook also concluded that the nature of teacher job satisfaction still needs research; for example, there is a need for more descriptive data on the nature of intrinsic reward for teachers, the development of these rewards, and the promotion of an environment in which these rewards can be acquired.

School Climate

In order to determine if there were correlations among school climate, school achievement, and demographic variables, Bedford (1987) used these variables individually and collectively. He chose as his school climate variables 1) instructional leadership, 2) expectations for student achievement, 3) environment, 4) classroom practices, 5) schoolwide instructional goals and objectives, 6) home-school relations, and 7) monitoring of student progress.

Bedford discovered that reading ability was significantly correlated with expectations for student achievement and total school climate.

When school climate and demographic variables were combined a statistically significant multiple correlation existed among socioeconomic status, home-school relations, race, and reading ability; among race, homeschool relations, instructional leadership, and mathematics ability; among socioeconomic status, race, and home-school relations; and among race, home-school relations, and instructional leadership (Bedford, 1987)

Keeler (1987) sought to develop an instrument that could be used to assess teacher actions that influence the classroom climate for learning. Keeler's Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (OCDQ) assessed four areas of teacher behavior-disengagement, esprit, hindrance, and intimacy-and four areas of principal behavior-aloofness, consideration, thrust, and production emphasis. Keeler's observation instrument (1987) described teacher behavior from more closed to more open. Students in each of the 32 classrooms completed the My Class Inventory (MCI), an instrument used to assess student perceptions about their climate.

Dudney (1987) addressed four questions regarding educational climate and the leadership role of the principal. To assess the perceptions of teachers and principals toward the climate of nine schools and the leadership role of the principal Dudney used the Learning

Climate Inventory and the School Climate Observation Checklist. The conclusions of this study were as follows:

1. The educational climate and leadership role of the principal can be assessed on a continuum from open to closed.

2. In schools where the leadership role of the principal was perceived as open, there appears to be a more open educational climate. Therefore, this would support a tenuously drawn conclusion that the principal's leadership style does have an impact upon the educational climate;

3. The principal influences the educational climate.

4. Most teachers in this study were satisfied with their teaching situation.

Thus, it can be generalized from Dudney's (1987) study that the school's climate greatly impacts the job satisfaction of teachers of teach at-risk students.

Akinode's (1988) study investigated the relationship between school achievement and school climate by selecting the two lowest and two highest achieving elementary schools of the same low socioeconomic, predominantly black community. Results revealed that school achievement indicated no relationship to Halpin and Croft's organizational climate Descriptive Questionnaire. Further, aloofness, esprit and thrust of OCDQ were placed with teacher warmth. Disengagement and intimacy of the OCDQ were placed in factor IV. Because dimensions of

OCDQ does not match respectively with the humanistic and custodial dimensions of PCI, these instruments need to be reconstructed and revalidated.

Brantley's (1988) study analyzed the relationships between school climate and student achievement in mathematics and reading by classifying each school from highest to lowest on each social climate subscale, and comparisons were made in terms of reading and mathematics subscale scores. Climate as perceived by teachers was found to be substantially associated with achievement. When all three measures of climate were examined in relation to achievement, a positive relationship was clearly evident. (Brantley, 1988)

Russell (1988) conducted a study to investigate the relationship among principal effectiveness characteristics; student achievement in reading, mathematics and composite areas, building climate perceptions by teachers; and the determination of a central focus in the building.

Russell found a significant relationship between school climate and each of the factors. There was no significant relationship between school climate and any of the sixth-grade achievement or student-gain scores.

Elementary teachers' perceptions of the relationships between elementary school principals' communication styles and elementary school climate was investigated by Halden (1988) by using the ten dimensions of Norton's Communicator Style Measure (CSM) and the ten dimensions of Fairman's Organizational Health Instrument (OHI). Halden's

analysis of the data revealed that the CSM dimensions of friendly, relaxed, open, attentive, animated/expressive, and impression had moderate, positive relationships with the OHI total before and after adjustment for each of the control variables. The principals in this study took a consistently more positive view of the health of their schools than did the teachers. Two of Halden's conclusions were the need for development of a theoretical rationale for a unified construct for communicator styles and for investigation into why principals view the health of their schools differently than do teachers.

Student Achievement

Many studies have been done regarding student achievement and its relationship to other variables. Because of James Comer's notability in improving schools for low-income, predominantly minority children, Brandt (1986) interviewed him to discuss the different elements that made his program successful. In any plan to change schools and improve achievement, Comer considers school climate, the academic program and staff development to be three of the most important factors. Also important is to focus on each child as an individual and also as a group to provide the essential services that coincides with current child development practices.

According to Comer, learning depends on modeling by the teacher and on the ability of the students to identify with authority figures and to internalize attitudes and values through relating emotionally with

others. For this to take place there must be the right kind of school climate. After the climate of the school changes, time can then be spent on identifying problems, needs, and plans for change.

Comer stressed the fact that high expectations cannot be simply demanded from people but instead a climate must be developed within the school that will allow individual to have high expectations. In other words the same teachers who work in chaotic conditions and had low expectations for students developed high expectations when they were working in a desirable and supportive climate (Brandt, 1986).

Walker (1988) studied the relationship of behaviors by teachers of academically talented black students to the academic achievement of those students. The study focused on 18 teaching behaviors that served as the core component of the "Make a Difference" staff development program developed to reduce the gap between the performance of black and white students. To determine the relationships between the teaching behavior scores of teachers and the achievement scores of students Walker (1988) obtained three sets of product moment correlations, which displayed 16 statistically significant correlations between the use by teachers of selected individual teaching behaviors from the "Make a Difference" staff development model and achievement outcomes for academically talented black students as measured by the total mathematics and total reading segments of the Stanford Achievement Test. Of the 18 teacher behaviors, ten were found to be significantly and

negatively related to student achievement, indicating that the use of the behavior was associated with lower student achievement gains.

Walker's findings (1988) were generally consistent with the findings done at the primary level with lower socioeconomic status students, instead of being supportive of the use of the teacher behaviors from the "Make a Difference" model that was used to promote achievement gains on the Stanford Achievement Test.

Higdon (1988) examined the correlation between student achievement and the effective schools correlates: high expectations for success, safe and orderly environment, clear school mission, frequent monitoring of student progress, instructional leadership and home and school relations. Findings from Higdon's study showed that:

1. Positive correlations were present among high expectations for success, opportunity to learn and time on task and between clear school mission and high expectations for success.

2. There was higher correlation between these effective schools correlates and the achievement of low socioeconomic status students.

Moseman (1988) used eight categories of demographic data, including age, teacher experience, and graduate work completed to examine the correlation between these variables and teacher effectiveness. Moseman arrived at two conclusions: (a) Age and professional preparation were not significant when determining teacher effectiveness, and (b) experience, produced results that merit attention.

Summary and Critique of Related Research

Generally, the studies reviewed that pertained to knowledge and understanding of low-income at-risk students were descriptive and based on studies that were done by boards and councils. Data for these studies have been gathered primarily through observations and questionnaires. Much research has traced low achievement levels of at-risk students to teachers' lack of commitment to making these students successful, teachers' low expectations, and teachers' failure to present adequate options designed to meet the needs of children with diverse learning styles (Cardenas and McCarty, 1985; Jennings, 1987; Benson, 1987; Maeroff, 1988; Ralph, 1989). It can be generalized from these findings that teachers who are knowledgeable of the needs of the at-risk students should be able to better meet their educational needs.

Although the research on the relationship of the teacher's locus of control and student achievement in reading and mathematics was limited, R. D. Scott (1987), Perhla (1986), and Picard (1986) found significant relationships among a teacher's performance and motivation and job commitment. Individuals who believe that they are in control of their environment have an inner motivation that causes them to outperform their counterparts (Coleman, 1988; Howard, 1986). These studies suggest that more educational research should focus on the teacher's locus of control and how it affects student achievement.

Also affecting student achievement is teachers' expectations of students (Hook, 1985; Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968). Bailey (1989), Firestone (1989), and Murphy (1988) agree that the proper attitude, support of educators, and the appropriate environment are necessary for the high achievement levels of at-risk students. Other studies suggest that more educational research should focus on how some teachers are able to bring about outstanding improvement in the performance of students without formal changes in their methods of teaching. (Friedlandler, 1988; Childress, 1987; Winfield, 1986; and Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968).

Several studies have also indicated that an enriched school climate contributes to increased student achievement in reading and mathematics (Brantley, 1988; Russell, 1988; Dudney, 1987; and Bedford, 1987). They indicated that favorable school climate rather than the makeup of the student population is the necessary condition for high achievement. Data for most studies on school climate are collected through the use of instruments that sample the participants' perceptions about their scholastic climate. Keeler developed an instrument that can be used to assess teacher actions that influence the classroom climate for learning. Administrators could use this instrument to help them to analyze the classroom climate of teachers and to compare this analysis with the mean reading and math scores of their class.

The literature reviewed that was related to the teacher's job satisfaction was basically descriptive and was based on elements of Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. In examining the teaching job's major satisfiers, these studies (Young, 1989; Owens, 1988; Westbrook, 1988; and Taylor, 1986) discovered that the major satisfiers are the school's communication system, interactions and successes with students, a sense of challenge, resource adequacy, and opportunities to be creative, whereas the teacher's working conditions was the major job dissatisfier. Data from these studies also revealed that the level of satisfaction was a determinant of productivity. It is suggested that administrators could increase the job satisfaction of the teachers in their school and increase productivity by assessing teacher preferences for various kinds of rewards (extrinsic, intrinsic, or ancillary).

Contribution of this Study to the Field of Educational Leadership

This review of the literature indicates that increased attention has been directed during the 1980's toward examining the problems of a dysfunctional education system that produces students who are not learning.

Focusing on the achievement levels of at-risk students, this study will provide for administrators and teachers specific information relative to selected teacher factors that may either increase or decrease the reading and mathematics achievement scores of these students. This descriptive and inferential survey should augment existing theoretical

information in the field and thus aid in making decisions that will make better students, teachers, and administrators.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, the researcher relates variables used in the study, gives the operational definitions of specific variables, and develops hypotheses. The purpose of this chapter is twofold: first, to determine the relationships and differences among the independent variables: teachers' locus of control, teachers' expectations of students, teachers' job satisfaction, teachers' biographical data, teachers' knowledge of the at-risk students, and the school's climate; and, second, to examine the effects these independent variables have on the dependent variables, the achievement scores in reading and math.

The assumption in this study is that there are certain factors in the teaching situation in elementary school (K-5) that affect the lack of success in the reading and math achievement scores of students considered to be at-risk. These factors, which are the independent variables mentioned immediately above, cause the achievement levels of a significant number of students' test scores to increase or decrease.

Definitions of Variables

The following definitions of variables were used for the purpose of the study.

1. Locus of Control - the degree to which teachers perceive their control over a situation, as measured by items 16-24 of the Locus

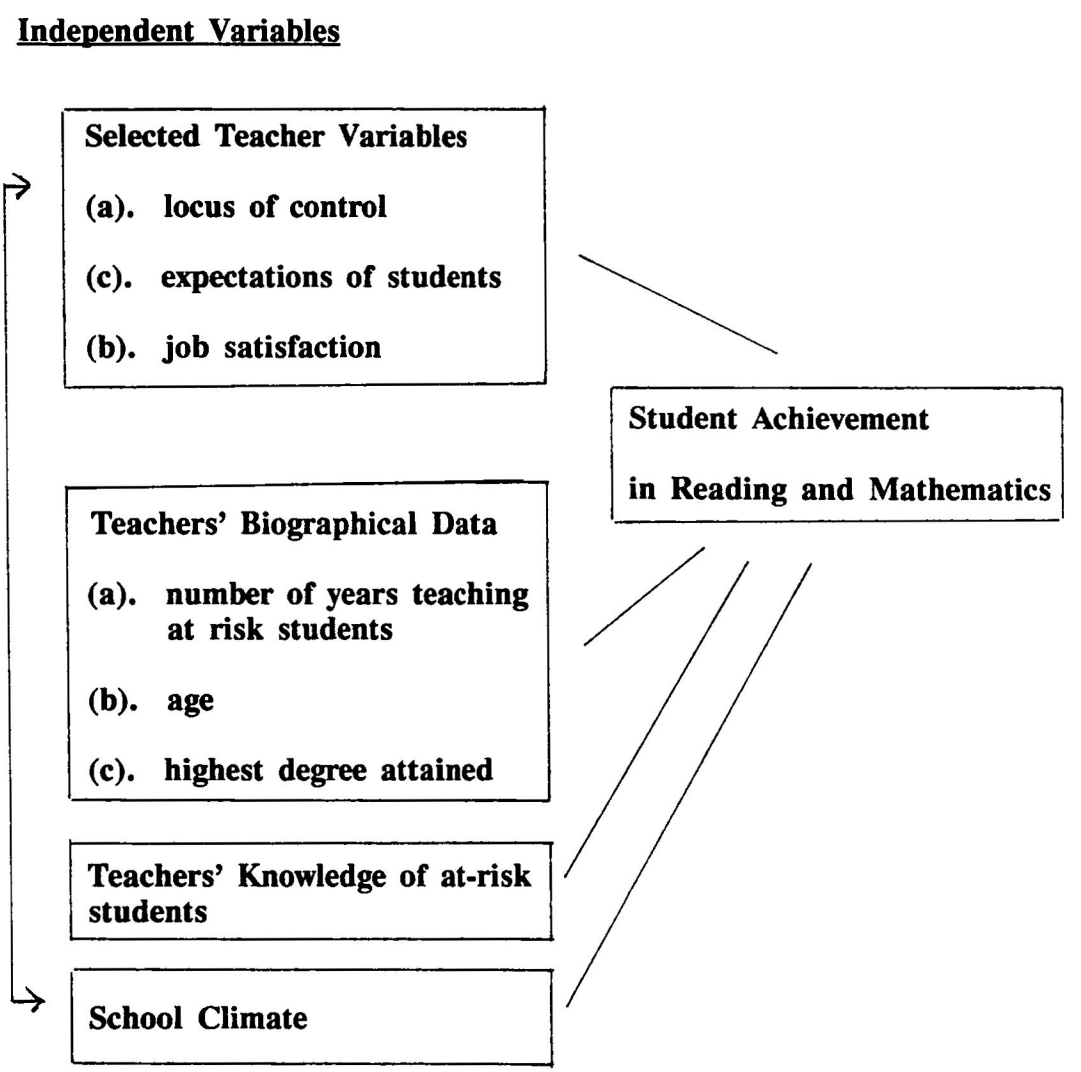
of Control, Expectations and Job Satisfaction Instrument (LEJ) (See appendix B).

2. Job Satisfaction - the degree to which a teacher's on-the-job needs, expectations, and desires are fulfilled, as measured by items 9-15 of the LEJ instrument (See appendix B).
3. Expectations of Students - how a teacher feels about the ability of at risk students to perform academically, as measured by items 1-8 of the LEJ instrument (See appendix B).
4. Teacher Biographical data - age, the number of years experience in teaching at-risk students, and degree level attained. instrument.
5. Knowledge of At-Risk Students - as measured by items 25-33 on the LEJ instrument (See appendix B).
6. School Climate - the combination of eight factors that are present in the school environment that affect both learning and individual behavior, as measured by Brookover's School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument.
7. Student Achievement - the total scores in reading and mathematics, as measured by the Spring 1989 Iowa Test of Basic Skills.

Conceptual Framework for this Research

A conceptualization of the framework for this study is presented in Figure 1:

FIGURE 1



In figure 1, the achievement of at-risk students in reading and math is shown to be dependent on the selected teacher variables (locus of control, expectations of students and job satisfaction), teachers' biographical data, teachers' knowledge of at-risk students and the

school's climate. These selected teacher variables are also shown to be dependent on the climate of the school.

Relationship Among the Variables and Hypotheses

The proposed interrelationship of the independent variables can be analyzed in terms of the conceptual model of the school as a social system, as explained by Hoy and Miskel (1982). They used Getzel and Guba's model of a social system to explain how the individual interacts with the school as a bureaucracy. This model suggests that student achievement can be influenced by how the teacher incorporates personality, needs, values, biographical characteristics (such as experience, age, and formal training) with perceptions of the professional role and expectations that are part of the institution's demands. The teacher's locus of control, expectations of the students, job satisfaction, knowledge of the students, biographical data, as well as the climate, become a part of the teacher's personality and values.

No matter how specific the role expectations of the institutions, the observed behavior of various teachers will be different because of their differing personalities. Part of this difference in behavior among individuals is related to how much influence teachers feel that they possess in controlling their job environment, a factor called locus of control. Coleman (1988) observed that individuals possess either an internal or external locus of control, with those who believe that they

possess the power to control a situation and their environment without the help of others being called "externals."

Another reason that individuals react differently to the same situation can be based on Maslow's theory, which is based on the assumption that everyone has the same needs. The first level of needs in Maslow's hierarchy is physiological needs, such as food, air, liquids, and sleep. The other needs can be called psychological, such as safety, love, self-esteem, and self-actualization. According to Maslow, one cannot move to higher levels until the needs preceding them have been satisfied (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). The implication of this theory for the present problem is that teachers must first satisfy their personal needs before they can be motivated to obtain organizational goals.

Even though salary, job security, and excellent facilities are necessary needs, they do not serve as sources of motivation for all teachers. According to Maslow, most teachers are operating on the fourth and fifth levels and must build self-esteem and self-actualization. If these teachers do not feel that they are a part of a team, do not get support or praise from principals and have no opportunity for growth, they will eventually become dissatisfied with their jobs.

The teacher's locus of control, job satisfaction, and expectations of the students influence the students' personality, dispositions and other observed behaviors and outputs. To illustrate this point, one need only to visit two classrooms in the same building with the same grade level,

same materials, same methodology, and same procedures, but a different teaching style. Each teacher interprets what the role should be and adapts it to a unique personal style with its own distinctive pattern of behavior. The teacher's behavior contributes to the creation of an open or closed climate within the classroom.

According to Brookover et al. (1979), custodial teachers generate a closed classroom climate while humanistic teachers generate a more open climate which provides an interesting, challenging, and meaningful work environment that helps individuals to build their self-esteem and to self-actualize. This difference between open and closed classroom climates deeply affects children and their personality. It is argued that in closed climates teachers encourage responsiveness and participation from their high achievers, offering them more challenges and more difficult goals to achieve, while seeming to unconsciously discourage the participation and responsiveness of slow learners (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). This teacher behavior discourages slow students from taking risks in the classroom by volunteering answers or seeking the teacher's help. Teacher's behavior that does not expect the students to learn will eventually shape the student's behavior. In time, students' behavior and achievement will conform more and more closely to the achievement and behavior originally expected of them (Lau, 1975). If the climate is open, however, and the child's social needs of belonging, love, and respect are met, this open climate will positively affect the student's behavior.

Several studies (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, and Wisenbaker, 1979; Lezotte, Hathaway, Miller, Passalacqua, and Brookover, 1988; Howard, 1980; and Teddlie, 1984) - all using Getzel and Guba's model of the school as a social system - agree that a favorable school climate significantly affects student achievement.

In summary, certain factors affect at-risk students' reading and math achievement scores in elementary school. These factors--teacher's locus of control, teacher's expectations of students, job satisfaction, teacher's knowledge of at-risk students, teacher's biographical data, and school climate--could prove to significantly contribute to these students' self-esteem, self-actualization, and scholastic success.

Statement of the Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and student reading achievement.
2. There is no significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and student mathematics achievement.
3. There is no significant relationship between teacher's expectations of students and student reading achievement.
4. There is no significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student mathematics achievement.
5. There is no significant relationship between school climate and student reading achievement.

6. There is no significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student mathematics achievement.
7. There is no significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student reading achievement.
8. There is no significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student mathematics achievement.
9. There is no significant relationship between school climate and student reading achievement.
10. There is no significant relationship between school climate and student mathematics achievement.
11. There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared with that of those taught by less experienced teachers.
12. There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared with that of those taught by less experienced teachers.
13. There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers.
14. There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers.

15. **There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree.**
16. **There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree.**
17. **There is no significant relationship between school climate and the selected teacher variables (locus of control, teacher's expectations, job satisfaction and knowledge of the at-risk low-income student).**

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN

A descriptive and inferential research design was chosen to answer research questions by testing seventeen null hypotheses regarding relationships and differences among variables (listed at end of Chapter III). The inferential research design according to Best (1970) is research that uses sampling to draw valid inferences or generalizations on the basis of careful observation or manipulation of variables within a relatively small proportion of the populations. The independent variables studied were the teacher's locus of control, teacher's expectations of students, and job satisfaction, teacher's knowledge of the at-risk student, teacher's biographical data (number of years teaching at-risk students, age, and degree level attained), and school climate. These variables were used to determine the relationships and differences among the dependent variables, achievement scores in reading and mathematics. The specific statistical tools employed were the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation and Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis.

The null hypotheses were measured at the .05 level of significance because this level is most commonly used in the field of education and the social sciences. Less than a .05 level of significance indicates that the probability due to chance is less than five percent. This predetermined level of probability was the criterion of accepting or rejecting the null hypotheses.

Population and Subjects

The participants in this research were chosen from a large urban school system in Georgia. For this study the researcher secured information from the 1988-89 Chapter I Proposal to determine those schools that had at least 90% of their students from low-income families. The population was stratified to include all first-grade teachers of the 31 schools that had at least 90% of their children from low-income families. From this population the researcher first assigned each school a number from a table of random numbers and then randomly selected ten schools for the study. After the names and addresses of the fifty-six respondents were obtained from the school system's 1988-89 personnel directory, two questionnaires were mailed, along with cover letters (see Appendix A) explaining the significance of this research . Each teacher was assigned a coded number and was assured that responses would be collated as a group and that individual anonymity would be preserved in the study. Twenty-eight, or 50%, of the fifty-six questionnaires were returned by mail before the first cut-off date of July 23, 1989. Teachers who failed to meet the first cut-off date were mailed a second set of questionnaires and were given an additional two weeks to respond. As a result of the second mailing fifteen, or 54%, of the remaining twenty-eight sets of questionnaires had been received by the second cut-off date of August 8, 1989. Telephone calls were made to the remaining twelve teachers requesting the return of both questionnaires. Four, or 33%, of these

questionnaires were returned by August 22, 1989. The nine teachers, or 16%, who failed to respond to this final request were excluded from this study.

Instrumentation

The two instruments used for this study were the Locus of Control, Expectations and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (LEJ) and Brookover's School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument. In creating the LEJ questionnaire, the researcher submitted it to a panel of seven judges for determining content validity. The judges were composed of the researcher's advisement committee, two Atlanta Public School Psychologists, one Atlanta University Professor of Psychology, and an Associate Professor of Curriculum and Instruction at Georgia State University. Their background in the field of education, interactions with teachers, and knowledge of the subject were adequate qualifications for determining the sufficiency of items on the questionnaire. The judges were asked to read the statements and circle the the interval on the seven point continuum (poor to good) that expressed their opinion of its value in contributing to the purpose of the questionnaire. Those statements receiving a judgment mean of four and above from the seven judges were included in the questionnaire that was used for field testing. For construct validity a small sample of twenty-five teachers was each asked to respond to each of the forty-one items by using a scale of 1-6 (disagree very much-agree very much). Items 1-9 measured the variable

of expectations; items 10-20 were designed to measure job satisfaction; items 21-32 measured the teacher's locus of control; and items 33-41 assessed the teacher's knowledge of the at-risk child.

The items for each variable were scored and totaled for each respondent. Mean scores were then calculated for each item and variable. Each item was correlated with the hypotheses to find out what items were relevant. A multiple regression analysis was done to find out if the dependent and independent variables would fall under the normal curve. According to the analysis, items 2, 14, 15, 16, 17, 28, 31, and 32 were not in the four equations of variables and were extracted from the final questionnaire (See Appendix C). This analysis resulted in the 33-item questionnaire that was used for this study. The LEJ questionnaire measured the following independent variables: teacher's expectations of students (item 1-8); job satisfaction (items 9-15); teacher's locus of control (items 16-24); and teacher's knowledge of at-risk students (items 25-33).

Data for the variable of school climate were obtained through the use of Brookover's (1984) School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument. This climate instrument was developed and validated by Wilbur Brookover, Lonnie McIntyre, and John Schweitzer of Michigan State University, and Edward Slawski of the Pontiac, Michigan Public Schools, with the assistance and contribution of numerous others. This instru-

ment was validated for the primary purpose of distinguishing between high-and low- achieving schools (Brookover, et al., 1984).

Brookover's (1984) instrument is a questionnaire of sixty items designed to help the professional staff of a school to assess the learning climate of its school: administrative instructional leadership, emphasis on achievement or commitment, expectations and evaluations of students, use of test data to evaluate instructional programs, safe and orderly environment, grouping for instruction, time for instruction and informal rewards for teachers. (See Appendix B for a copy of the instrument). The scale for this instrument was 1-5 (strongly agree - strongly disagree). A factor score of five or near five indicated that the respondent rated the factor as favorable. A factor score of three or below indicated that the respondent rated the factor as unfavorable. For the purpose of this study the total score on Brookover's climate instrument was used as an indicator of each school's climate as perceived by the respondent.

The teachers' biographical data (years of experience teaching at risk students, age, and degree level attained) were obtained from teachers through the use of a biographical data sheet that accompanied the questionnaires. Data from this instrument were used to examine possible comparisons between biographical data of teachers and responses made to the LEJ questionnaire.

Organization and Analysis of Data

Data secured for this research were analyzed using the Pearson r Correlation Coefficient and the Chi-Square Analysis. The established level of significance was 0.05. The specific procedures that the researcher followed in securing, organizing, and analyzing data included:

1. Questionnaire (Appendic A) with cover letter were sent via United States mail to selected teachers.
2. Responses were reviewed for completeness.
3. Responses for each variable on the instruments were tabulated and calculated statistically.
4. Frequency Distribution Tables were developed to describe the relevant biographicAL data.
5. Pearson r correlation coefficients were computed to determine the direction and strength of the relationships among variables. These were reported in Correlation Matrix Tables.
6. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to compute the differences for hypotheses eleven through sixteen.
7. The statistics and other data were presented, discussed, and interpreted in the context of the hypotheses, research questions, related research and conceptual literature, and the writer's experiences.
8. The final report was written to include summary, conclusions, implications, and recommendations.

CHAPTER V

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the data of this study by addressing the hypotheses and research questions. The 1989 spring test results from the Iowa Test of Basic Skills were used to define student achievement. Correlations were computed to examine the relationship between student achievement and the three select teacher variables, teacher knowledge, and school climate. Chi square was computed to find the differences between teacher biographics and student achievement. The researcher used two instruments to secure data from the respondents for this study. The first instrument was the Locus of Control, Expectations and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (LEJ) drafted by the researcher. This instrument assessed the independent variables of teacher's locus of control, teacher's expectations of students, job satisfaction, and knowledge of at risk students. The second instrument used was Brookover's (1984) School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument. Both instruments were mailed to first-grade teachers of the ten schools that were randomly selected from a stratified population of thirty-one schools. Forty-seven of the fifty-six teachers (84%) returned their questionnaires. The responses for each instrument from the forty-seven subjects were tabulated and calculated statistically on the IBM 4381 computer by using the Statistical Packet for the Social Science (SPSS) Program.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, and a nonparametric oneway Chi Square Analysis (Kruskal-Wallis test) were used to analyze the data collected from the populations. The .05 significant level was used to test the null hypotheses.

Description of the Biographical Data

The population from which the sample was selected consisted of all first-grade teachers of the thirty-one schools that had at least 90% of the children from low-income families. Approximately 17% of these teachers were between the ages of 31-40 and 83 % of the teachers were between the ages of 41 or over. Since years taught may not correspond to the number of years teaching the at-risk student, teachers were asked to indicate the number of years experience that they had been teaching students who were in this category. There were 6% of the teachers who had between one to six years' experience, 17% had seven to thirteen years' experience, 36% had fourteen to twenty years' experience, and 40% had at least twenty-one years' or over experience. There were 23% of the teachers who held the Bachelor's degree and 76.6% of the teachers who held Master's degrees. Select biographic data of the subjects in this study are presented in tabular form using three tables.

Teachers were divided into three age ranges, 21-30, 31-40 and 41 or over. According to the data reported there were no participants in the age range of 21-30. Data concerning the percentage of teachers who are in the other two ranges are indicated in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Frequency Distribution of Age of Teachers

Age Group	Total Percentage
21 - 30	0.0
31 - 40	17.0
41 or over	83.0
Column Total	100.0

Table 1 indicates that 17% of the 47 teachers in this study were between the age range of 31-40 and 83% of the forty-six teachers were in the age range of 41 or over. The data indicate that the majority of the teachers are between the age range of 41 or over.

According to the reported data in Table 2, there were only 3 teachers who had between 1-6 years of experience. The three teachers in this category were combined with the range of 7-13 years of experience because of the low number. The combination of these two categories still had the lowest percentage in comparison with the ranges 14-20 and 21 or over.

Data concerning the percentage of teachers in the three ranges of experience are indicated in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Frequency Distribution of Years Experience

Teaching At-Risk Low-Income Children

Years Experience	Total Percentage
1 - 13	23.4
14 - 20	36.2
21 or Over	40.4
Column Total	100.0

Table 2 indicates that 23% of the forty-seven teachers in this study had between 1-13 years of experience. There were 36% of the teachers who had experience teaching at-risk students between 14-20 years and 40% of the teachers had at least 21 years' experience. The largest percentage of teachers had 21 or more years' experience teaching at-risk children.

Of the four different teaching degree levels that could be obtained by a teacher, data for Table 3 indicated that those teachers who responded to the questionnaire either held a Bachelor's or Master's degree.

TABLE 3

Frequency Distribution of Highest Degree Earned by Teachers

Degree	Total Percentage
Bachelor's	23.4
Master's	76.6
Column Total	100.0

Table 3 indicates that 23% of the forty-seven teachers in this study had a Bachelor's Degree and 77% of the teachers had Master's Degrees. There were no teachers in this study who had earned a degree higher than the Master's.

The Relationships of the Independent and Dependent Variables

Chapters I and III proposed seventeen research questions and discussed below.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and student reading achievement.

Items 16-28 of the LEJ instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis. Each respondent was asked to rate each questionnaire item

using the following scale: 1 - if you disagree very much; 2 - if you disagree on the whole; 3 - if you disagree a little; 4 - if you agree a little; 5 - if you agree on the whole; and 6 - if you agree very much.

The reading performance of the students for each participating teacher was obtained. This performance measure was in terms of the overall percentage means of students for the respective teachers.

Table 4 shows the correlation between student reading achievement and locus of control.

TABLE 4

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Reading and Teacher's Locus of Control

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

*** Significant at the 0.05 Level**

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Reading	.3473	* .008

The data reported in Table 4 show the results of testing hypothesis one. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient for locus of control in relationship to achievement in reading was .3473 with a level of significance of .008. Since there is a significant relationship to locus of control at the .05 level, this hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and student achievement in mathematics.

The procedure here was the same as for hypothesis one, except that it was the mathematics performance of the students for each participating teacher that was observed.

Items 16-28 of the LEJ instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis. The correlation between student achievement in mathematics and locus of control is presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Mathematics and Teacher's Locus of Control

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Mathematics	.2135	.075

The data reported in Table 5 show the results of testing hypothesis two. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient for locus of control in relationship to achievement in mathematics was .2135 with a .075 level of sig-

nificance. Since there is no significant relationship to locus of control at the .05 level, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Three: There is no significant relationship between teacher's expectations of students and student achievement in reading.

Items 1-8 of the LEJ instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis.

The correlation between student reading achievement and teacher's expectations is presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Reading and Teacher's Expectations

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

*** Significant at the 0.05 Level**

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Reading	.3189	.014

Table 6 shows the results of testing hypothesis three. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient for teacher's expectations of students and student achievement in relationship to achievement in reading was .3189 with a level of significance of .014. Since there is a significant relationship to

teacher's expectation at the .05 level of significance, this hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis Four: There is no significant relationship between teacher's expectations of students and student mathematics achievement.

Items 1-8 of the LEJ instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis.

The correlation between student mathematics achievement and teacher's expectations is presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Mathematics and Teacher's Expectations

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

*** Significant at the 0.05 Level**

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Mathematics	.1979	.091

Table 7 shows the results of testing hypothesis four. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient for teacher's expectations of students and student achievement in relationship to achievement in mathematics was .1979 with the level of significance of .091. Since there is no significant

relationship to teacher's expectation at the .05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Five: There is no significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student reading achievement.

Items 9-15 of the LEJ Instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis.

The correlation between student reading achievement and teacher's job satisfaction is presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Reading and Teacher's Job Satisfaction

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Reading	.1984	.091

Table 8 shows the result of testing hypothesis five. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient for job satisfaction in relationship to reading achievement was .1984 with a level of significance of .091. Since there

is no significant relationship to job satisfaction at the .05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Six: There is no significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student mathematics achievement.

Items 9-15 of the LEJ Instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis. The correlation between student achievement in mathematics and teacher's job satisfaction is presented in Table 9.

TABLE 9

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Mathematics and Teacher's Job Satisfaction

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Mathematics	.1082	.235

Table 9 shows the results of testing hypothesis six. The correlation coefficient for job satisfaction in relationship to achievement in mathematics was .1082 with a level of significance of .235. Since there is no significant relationship to teacher's job satisfaction at the .05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Seven: There is no significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student reading achievement

Items 25-33 of the LEJ Instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis. The correlation between student reading achievement and teacher's knowledge of the at-risk low-income student is presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Reading and the Teacher's Knowledge of the At-Risk Low-Income Student

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Reading	-.3425	* .009

Table 10 shows the results of testing hypothesis seven. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient for teachers' knowledge of at-risk students and student achievement in reading was -.3425 with a level of significance of .009. Since there is a slight inverse relationship to teachers' knowledge of at-risk students at the .05 level of significance, the research data rejects the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis Eight: There is no significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student mathematics achievement.

Items 25-33 of the LEJ Instrument (See Appendix B) addressed this hypothesis. The correlation between student mathematics achievement and teacher's knowledge of the at-risk low-income student is presented in Table 11.

TABLE 11

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Mathematics and Teacher's Knowledge of the At-Risk Low-Income Student

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Achievement	r	Level of Significance
Mathematics	-.3041	.019

Table 11 shows the results of testing hypothesis eight.

The correlation coefficient for teachers' knowledge of at-risk students and student achievement in mathematics was -.3041 with a level of significance of .019. Since there is a slight inverse relationship to

teachers' knowledge of at-risk students at the .05 level of significance, this hypothesis has been rejected.

Hypothesis Nine: There is no significant relationship between school climate and student reading achievement.

Data for the variable, school climate, was obtained through the use of Brookover's (1984) School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument. This instrument was composed of sixty items that were clustered in eight components. These components consist of the following: administrative instructional leadership; emphasis on achievement or commitment; expectations and evaluation of students; use of test data to evaluate instructional programs; safe and orderly environment; grouping for instruction; time for instruction and teacher reward. Each respondent was asked to rate each questionnaire item using a five scale model.

Data reported in Table 12 show the results of testing hypothesis eight. Table 12 indicates the Pearson Correlation Coefficients and the level of significance for each of the eight components as they relate to achievement in reading.

The correlation between student reading achievement and the components of the School Climate Questionnaire are presented below in Table 12.

TABLE 12

Correlation Between Student Achievement and Components of School Climate Questionnaire

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

*** Significant at the 0.05 Level**

Components	Achievement (Reading)	Level of Significant (Reading)
Administrative Instructional Leadership	-.1160	.219
Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment	.1066	.238
Expectations and Evaluation of Students	.0053	.486
Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs	-.0611	.342
Safe and Orderly Environment	-.0243	.435
Grouping for Instruction	.0593	.346
Time for Instruction	.0225	.440
Teacher Reward	.0895	.275

Table 12 shows that the component Administrative Instructional Leadership has a Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) of -.1160 with a level of significance of .219. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and reading achievement at the

0.05 level of significance. The component Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment has an (r) of .1066 with a level of significance of .238. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and student achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Expectations and Evaluation of Students has an (r) of .0053 with a level of significance of .486. There is a significant relationship between this component of school climate and achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs has an (r) of -.0611 with a level of significance of .342. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and student achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Safe and Orderly Environment has an (r) of -.0243 with a level of significance of .435. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Grouping for Instruction has an (r) of .0593 with a level of significance of .346. There is a significant relationship between this component of school climate and student achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Time for Instruction has an (r) of .0225 with a level of significance of .440. There is a significant relationship between this component of school climate and achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Teacher Reward has an (r) of .0895 with a level of significant of .275. There is no significant relationship between this component of

school climate and achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. Since there is no significant relationship between the total school climate and achievement in reading at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Ten: There is no significant relationship between school climate and student mathematics achievement.

The data showing the correlation between student achievement in mathematics and the components of the School Climate Questionnaire are presented in Table 13.

TABLE 13

Correlation Between Student Achievement in Mathematics and Components of School Climate Questionnaire

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Significant at the 0.05 Level

Components	Achievement (Math)	Level of Significance (Math)
Administrative Instructional Leadership	-.1709	.125
Emphais on Achievement or Commitment	-.1505	.156
Expectations and Evaluation of Students	.0665	.329
Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs	-.1690	.128
Safe and Orderly Environment	-.0933	.256
Grouping for Instruction	-.0052	.486
Time for Instruction	-.0890	.276
Teacher Reward	.0128	.466

Table 13 shows that the component Administrative Instructional Leadership has a Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) of -.1709 with a level of significance of .125. There is a slight inverse relationship bet-

ween this component of school climate and math achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment has an (r) of -.1505 with a level of significance of .156. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and student achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Expectations and Evaluation of Students has an (r) of .0665 with a level of significance of .329. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and student achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs has an (r) of -.1690 with a level of significance of .128. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and student achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Safe and Orderly Environment has an (r) of -.0933 with a level of significance of .266. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and student achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Time for Instruction has an (r) of -.0890 with a level of significance of .276. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Teacher Reward has a (r) of .0128 with a level of significance of .465. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and achievement at the 0.05 level of significance. Since there is no significant relationship between the total school climate and

mathematics achievement at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Eleven: There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared with that of those taught by less experience teachers.

To test this hypothesis the Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis was used to rank the reading and mathematics achievement scores. Since reading achievement was measured in terms of the overall reading percentile means of each teacher's students, a nonparametric test of significance was used to keep from violating the assumption of a normally distributed equal-interval scale which is required in order to perform a parametric test. Data reported show the results of testing hypothesis six. The statistics provided are the means, mean ranks, chi square and significance for the achievement of components, reading and mathematics.

The Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis showing differences of reading achievement scores by years of experience teaching at-risk students is presented in Table 14.

TABLE 14

Comparisons of Reading Achievement Scores by Years of Experience Teaching At-Risk Students

Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis

(N = 47)

(Level of Significance)

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Teacher Experience	Reading Achievement Mean	Mean Ranks
1 - 13 Years (N=11)	52.68	21.50
14 - 20 Years (N=17)	55.01	22.53
21 or over (N=19)	59.35	25.76
Chi Square		1.33
Level of Significance		0.51)

The 11 teachers with 1-13 years of experience teaching at-risk students had a mean score in reading of 52.68, and a mean rank of 21.50. The 17 teachers with 14-20 years of experience had a mean of 55.01 and a mean rank of 22.53. The 19 teachers with 21 or over years of experience had a mean score of 59.35 and a mean rank of 26.76. The chi square for reading was 1.33 and the level of significance was 0.51. Since there is no significant difference in reading achievement of

students among the experience level of their teachers at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Twelve: There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared with that of those taught by less experienced teachers.

The Krushal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis showing differences of mathematics achievement scores by years of experience teaching at risk students is presented in Table 15.

TABLE 15

Comparisons of Mathematics Achievement Scores by Years of Experience Teaching At-Risk Students

(N = 47)

Level of Significance)

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Teacher Experience	Math Achievement Mean	Mean Rank
14-20 Years (N=17)	55.35	22.59
1-13 Years (N=11)	57.86	23.86
21 or over Years (N=19)	60.28	25.34
Chi Square		0.36
Level of Significance		(0.83)

The 17 teachers with 14-20 years of experience teaching at risk students had a mean score of 55-35 and a mean rank of 22.59. The 11 teachers with 1-13 years of experience had a mean score of 57.86 and a mean rank of 23.86. The 19 teachers who had 21 or over years of experience had a mean score was 60.28 and mean rank of 25.34. The chi square for mathematics was 0.36 at the level of significance of 0.83. Since there is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of teachers at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Thirteen: There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers.

To test this hypothesis the Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analyisis was used to rank the reading and mathematics achievement scores. The data reported show the results of testing hypothesis seven. The statistics provided are the means, mean ranks, chi square and significance for the achievement components, reading and mathematics.

The Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis showing differences of reading achievement scores by the teacher's age is presented in Table 16.

TABLE 16

Comparisons of Reading Achievement Scores

by Teacher's Age

Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis

(N = 47)

(Level of Significance)

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

	Reading Achievement	
Teacher's Age	Mean	Mean Rank
41 or Over (N=39)	55.97	23.76
31-40 (N=8)	57.44	25.19
Chi Square		0.07
Level of Significance		(0.79)

Table 16 shows that there were 39 teachers who were aged 41 or over. The mean score for this group was 55.97 with a mean rank of 23.76. The 8 teachers who were between the ages of 31 and 40 had a mean score of 57.44 and a mean rank of 25.19. The chi square for reading was 0.07 with the level of significance at 0.79. Since there is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared to that of those taught by older teachers at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Fourteen: There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers.

The Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis showing differences of mathematics achievement scores by the teacher's age is presented in Table 17.

TABLE 17

Comparisons of Mathematics Achievement Scores by Teacher's Age

Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis

(N = 47)

(Level of Significance)

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

	Math Achievement	
Teacher's Age	Means	Mean Rank
41 or Over (N=39)	56.72	23.31
31 - 40 (N=8)	63.80	27.38
Chi Square		0.58
Level of Significance		(0.44)

Table 17 shows that there were 39 teachers who were aged 41 or over. The mean score for this group was 56.72 with a mean rank of 23.31. The 8 teachers who were between the ages of 31 and 40 had a

mean score of 63.80 with a mean rank of 27.38. The chi square for mathematics was 0.58 with the level of significance at 0.44. Since there is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Fifteen: There is no significant difference in achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of students taught by teachers with a higher degree.

To test this hypothesis the Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis was used to rank the reading and mathematics achievement scores. The data reported show the results of testing hypothesis fifteen. The statistics provided are the means, mean ranks, chi square, and significance for the achievement components of reading and mathematics. The Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis showing differences of reading achievement scores by the degree level attained by the teacher is presented in Table 18.

TABLE 18

Comparisons of Reading Achievement Scores by

Level of Education of Teachers

Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis

(N = 47)

(Level of Significance)

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

Level of Education	Reading Achievement Means	Mean Ranks
Bachelor's (N=11)	52.50	21.50
Master's (N=36)	57.36	24.76
Chi Square		0.48
Level of Significance		(0.49)

Table 18 shows that there were 11 teachers with a Bachelor's Degree. The mean score for this group was 52.50 with a mean rank of 21.50. The 36 teachers with a Master's Degree had a mean score of 57.36 with a mean rank of 24.76. The chi square for reading was 0.48 with the level of significance at 0.49. Since there is no significant difference in achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of those taught by teachers

with a higher degree at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Sixteen: There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree.

The Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis showing differences of mathematic achievement scores by the degree level attained by the teacher is presented in Table 19.

TABLE 19

Comparisons of Mathematics Achievement Scores by

Level of Education of Teachers

Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis

(N = 47)

(Level of Significance)

* Significant at the 0.05

	Math Achievement	
Level of Education	Means	Mean Ranks
Master's (36)	56.90	23.57
Bachelor's (11)	61.30	25.41
Chi Square		.1517
Level of Significance		(0.70)

Table 19 shows that the 36 teachers with a Master's Degree have a mean score of 56.90 with a mean rank of 23.57. The 11 teachers with a Bachelor's Degree have a mean score of 61.30 with a mean rank of 25.41. The chi square for mathematics was .1517 with the level of significance at 0.70. Since there is no significant difference in achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as

compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Seventeen: There is no significant relationship between school climate and the selected teacher variables (locus of control, teacher's expectations, job satisfaction, and knowledge of the at-risk low-income student).

The data reported in Tables 20-23 show the results of testing hypothesis seventeen. This data includes the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) and the level of significance for each of the eight components as they relate to teacher's locus of control, teacher's expectations, teacher's job satisfaction, and teacher's knowledge of the at-risk low-income child.

Table 20 depicts the correlation between school climate and the teacher's locus of control.

TABLE 20

Correlation Between School Climate and Teacher's Locus of Control

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

School Climate Variables	r	Level of Significance
Administrative Instructional Leadership	-.0917	.270
Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment	.3006	.020
Expectations and Evaluation of Students	.1286	.195
Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs	-.0841	.287
Safe and Orderly Environment	.0799	.297
Grouping for Instruction	-.1639	.135
Time for Instruction	.1461	.163
Teacher Reward	-.1922	.098

Table 20 shows that the component Administrative Instructional Leadership has a Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) of -.0917 with a level of significance of .270. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and locus of control at the .05

level of significance. The component Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment has a (r) of .3006 with a level of significance of .020. There is a significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's locus of control at the .05 level of significance. The component Expectations and Evaluation of Students has an (r) of .1286 with a level of significance of .195. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's locus of control at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs has an (r) of -.0841 with a level of significance of .287. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's locus of control at the .05 level of significance. The component Safe and Orderly Environment has an (r) of .0799 with a level of significance of .297. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's locus of control at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Grouping for Instruction has an (r) of -.1639 with a level of significance of .135. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component and teacher's locus of control at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Time of Instruction has an (r) of .1461 with a level of significance of .163. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's locus of control at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Teacher Reward has an (r) of 0.1933 with a level of significance of .098. There is no significant

relationship between this component and teacher's locus of control at the .05 level of significance. Since there is a slight inverse relationship between the total school climate and teacher's locus of control at the .05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Table 21 depicts the correlation between school climate and the teacher's expectations of students.

TABLE 21

Correlation Between School Climate and the Teacher's Expectations

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

School Climate Variables	r	Level of Significance
Administrative Instructional Leadership	.0782	.201
Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment	.2552	.042
Expectations and Evaluation of Students	.1026	.246
Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs	-.2541	*.0421
Safe and Orderly Environment	.0882	.278
Grouping for Instruction	.1542	.150
Time for Instruction	.1184	.214
Teacher Reward	-.3010	*.020

Table 21 shows that the component Administrative Instructional Leadership has a Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) of .0782 with a level of significance of .201. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher expectations at the .05 level of significance. The component Emphasis on Achievement or

Commitment has an (r) of .2552 with a level of significance of .042. There is a significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's expectations at the .05 level of significance. The component Expectations and Evaluation of Students has an (r) of .1026 with a level of significance of .246. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's expectations at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs has an (r) of -.2541 with a level of significance of .0421. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's expectations at the .05 level of significance. The component Safe and Orderly Environment has an (r) of .0882 with a level of significance of .278. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's expectations at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Grouping for Instruction has an (r) of .1542 with a level of significance of .150. There is no significant relationship between this component and teacher's expectation at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Time for Instruction has an (r) of .1184 with a level of significance of .214. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's expectation at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Teacher Reward has an (r) of -.3010 with a level of significance of .020. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component and teacher's expectations at the .05 level of significance. Since there

is no significant relationship between the total school climate and teacher's expectations at the .05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Table 22 depicts the correlation between school climate and the teacher's job satisfaction.

TABLE 22

Correlation Between School Climate and

Teacher's Job Satisfaction

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

School Climate Variables	r	Level of Significance
Administrative Instructional Leadership	.1346	.184
Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment	.3814	.004
Expectations and Evaluation of Students	.1166	.217
Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs	-.1504	.156
Safe and Orderly Environment	-.0713	.317
Grouping for Instruction	.0207	.445
Time for Instruction	.0507	.368
Teacher Reward	.1936	.096

Table 22 shows that the component Administrative Instructional Leadership has a Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) of .1346 with a level of significance of .184. There is no significant relationship between

this component of school climate and teacher's job satisfaction at the .05 level of significance. The component Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment has an (r) of .3814 with a level of significance of .004. There is a significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Expectations and Evaluation of Students has an (r) of .1166 with a level of significance of .217. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs has an (r) of -.1504 with a level of significance of .156. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's job satisfaction. The component Safe and Orderly Environment has a (r) of -.0713 with a level of significance of .317. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Grouping for Instruction has an (r) of .0207 with a level of significance of .445. There is no significant relationship between this component and teacher's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Time for Instruction has an (r) of .0507 with level of significance of .368. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Teacher Reward has an (r) of .1936 with a level of significance of .096. There

is no significant relationship between this component and teacher's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance. There is no significant relationship between the total school climate and teacher's job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance, this hypothesis is accepted.

Table 23 depicts the correlation between school climate and the teacher's knowledge.

TABLE 23

Correlation Between School Climate and Teacher's Knowledge

(N = 47)

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

* Significant at the 0.05 Level

School Climate Variables	r	Level of Significance
Administrative Instructional Leadership	.1455	.165
Emphasis on Achievement or Commitment	-.0364	.404
Expectations and Evaluation of Students	-.1490	.159
Use of Test Data to Evaluate Instructional Programs	.1943	.095
Safe and Orderly Environment	.2030	.086
Grouping for Instruction	.1906	.100
Time for Instruction	.3589	*.007
Teacher Reward	.3040	*.019

Table 23 shows that the component Administrative Instructional Leadership has a Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) of .1455 with a level of significance of .165. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's knowledge at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Emphasis on Achievement or

Commitment has an (r) of -.0364 with a level of significance of .404. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's knowledge at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Expectations and Evaluation of Students has an (r) of -.1490 with a level of significance of .159. There is a slight inverse relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's knowledge at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Use of Test Date to Evaluate Instructional Programs has an (r) of .1943 with a level of significance of .095. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's knowledge at the .05 level of significance. The component Safe and Orderly Environment has an (r) of .2030 with a level of significance of .086. There is no significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's locus of control at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Grouping for Instruction has an (r) of .1906 with a level of significance of .100. There is no significant relationship between this component and teacher's knowledge at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Time for Instruction has an (r) of .3589 with a level of significance of .007. There is a significant relationship between this component of school climate and teacher's knowledge at the 0.05 level of significance. The component Teacher Reward has an (r) of .3040 with a level of significance of .019. There is a significant relationship between this component and teacher's knowledge. Since there is no significant relationship between the total

school climate and teacher's knowledge at the 0.05 level of significance, this component of the hypothesis is accepted. There is no significant relationship between the total school climate and the four select teacher variables.

Summary

In Chapter V the data for this study were presented and analyzed in the form of frequency tables, correlation coefficient matrix tables, and Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square Analysis tables. There was a total of seventeen hypotheses statistically examined. Hypotheses one, three, seven and eight were rejected at the .05 level. Inverse relationships were found between both dependent variables and the independent variables of teacher's knowledge and certain components of the school's climate.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study investigated relationships and differences among the dependent variables of academic achievement in reading and mathematics of at-risk students and the independent variables of teacher's locus of control, job satisfaction and expectations of students, teacher's knowledge of at-risk students, teacher's biographical data, (age, degree attained, and years of experience), and school climate.

Participants in this study (N=47) involved first-grade teachers from a stratified population of teachers who taught at schools where at least 90% of the children were from low-income families in a large urban school system. To secure data for the variables all teachers responded to two instruments, Brookover's School Learning Climate Assessment and the researcher's original questionnaire, called the Locus of Control, Expectations and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. Data were statistically tabulated and calculated using an IBM 4381 computer incorporating the Statistical Packet for the Social Service (SPSS) Program.

The design that was used for this research was inferential statistics which included the use of descriptive statistics, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, and a nonparametric chi square analysis (Kruskal-Wallis test). The 0.05 significant level was used to test the null hypotheses.

Findings

The findings are based on the analysis of data presented in Chapter V and are summarized with respect to each hypothesis.

1. There is a significant relationship between the teacher's locus of control and student reading achievement.

The first hypothesis was rejected because it was found that there is a significant relationship between the teacher's locus of control and student achievement in reading at the 0.05 level. Coleman (1988) contends that individuals who have an inner motivation possess an internal locus of control. Based on this statement the researcher found several studies (Picard, 1986; Perhla, 1986; Scott, 1987) that demonstrated significant relationships between a teacher's performance and job commitment and motivation. Youngblood's (1987) study on teacher motivation supports hypothesis one in this research. This study indicated that schools with lower scores than predicted demonstrated higher teacher motivation scores.

2. There is no significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and student mathematics achievement. The second hypothesis was accepted because the data revealed that there is no significant relationship between teacher's locus of control and achievement in mathematics at the 0.05 level.

The researcher was able to find related research that explained why there was a significant relationship between the teacher's locus of control in reading but not mathematics.

3. There is no significant relationship between teacher's expectations of students and student reading achievement.

The third hypothesis was rejected because a significant relationship was found between teacher's expectations of students and achievement in reading at the 0.05 level. The researcher was able to find several studies (Rosenthal and Jacobson; 1968; Hook, 1985; Winfield, 1986; Bedford, 1987; C. Scott, 1987; Childress, 1987; Friedlander, 1988; Murphy, 1988; Firestone, 1989; Bailey, 1989) to support the finding that there is a significant relationship between student achievement in reading and teacher's expectation of students.

4. There is no significant relationship between teacher's expectations of students and student mathematics achievement.

The fourth hypothesis was accepted because no significant relationship was found between teacher's expectations and student achievement in mathematics at the 0.05 level. The researcher was unable to find related research that explained why there was a significant relationship between teacher's expectations and achievement in reading but not mathematics.

5. There is no significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student reading achievement.

6. There is no significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student mathematics achievement.

Hypotheses five and six were accepted because the data revealed that there is no significant relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and student achievement in reading and mathematics at the 0.05 level. Owens' (1988) study similarly revealed that there was no significant relationship between teacher's level of job satisfaction and achievement of first and fourth grade students.

7. There is no significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student reading achievement.

8. There is no significant relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student mathematics achievement.

Hypotheses seven and eight were rejected because the data revealed a significant inverse relationship between teacher's knowledge of at-risk students and student achievement in reading and mathematics at the 0.05 level. In attempting to explain the significant relationships reported, the researcher was unable to find related research to support or refute the relationship between student achievement and knowledge of at at-risk students. However, studies reviewed in Chapter Two of this research noted that low expectations, lack of commitment to making these students successful, and lack of adequate options designed to meet the needs of children with diverse learning styles all contributed adversely to the achievement of the at-risk child. (Cardenas and

McCarty, 1985; Jennings, 1987; Benson, 1987; Maeroff, 1988; Ralph, 1989). It can be generalized from these findings that teachers who are knowledgeable of the needs of the at-risk student will be able to better meet their educational needs. Thus, the inverse relationship between the teacher's knowledge of the at-risk student and their achievement is not understood.

9. There is no significant relationship between the school climate and student reading achievement.
10. There is no significant relationship between the school climate and student mathematics achievement.

Hypotheses nine and ten were accepted because the data revealed no significant relationship between school climate and student achievement in reading and mathematics at the 0.05 level. The data also reported weak inverse realtionships between the total school climate and achievement in reading and mathematics. Perhaps Brookover's school climate instrument did not properly measure the variable of school climate as it related to this study. According to the data the components of the school's climate that had inverse relationships in both reading and mathematics were administrative instructional leadership, use of test data to evaluate instructional programs and safe and orderly environment. Akinode's (1988) study supports the findings in this research. According to results from Akinode's study (1988), there were no relationships between school climate and student achievement in low

and high achieving elementary schools. Results from Russell's study (1988) on the relationship between school climate and the achievement of sixth graders further supports this researcher's findings that there is no relationship between school climate and student achievement.

11. There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared with that of those taught by less experienced teachers.
12. There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by more experienced teachers as compared with that of those taught by less experienced teachers.
13. There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers.
14. There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by younger teachers as compared with that of those taught by older teachers.
15. There is no significant difference in reading achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree as compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree.
16. There is no significant difference in mathematics achievement of students taught by teachers who have a Bachelor's Degree

as compared with that of those taught by teachers with a higher degree.

Hypotheses eleven through sixteen were accepted because the data revealed no significant differences between the teachers' biographic variables and student achievement in reading and mathematics at the 0.05 level. The researcher found one study to support the findings in this research. Moseman's (1988) study used demographic data that included age, teacher experience, and graduate work completed to examine the correlation between these variables and teacher effectiveness. According to Moseman's findings, age and professional preparation were not related when determining teacher effectiveness. In Moseman's study, experience had a slight relationship with teacher effectiveness.

17. There is no significant relationship between school climate and the selected teacher variables (locus of control, teacher's expectations, job satisfaction, and knowledge of the at-risk low-income student).

Hypothesis seventeen was accepted because no significant correlation was found to exist between school climate and the select teacher variables. There were several inverse relationships between the components of school climate and the selected teacher variables; for example, the school climate component of administrative instructional leadership had an inverse relationship on the teacher variable of locus of control.

Brookover's scoring manual for the climate instrument indicates that a score of five or near five on a factor means that the respondent rates this factor favorably, whereas a factor score of three or below means that the respondent assessed the factor unfavorably. A mean score finding of 3.78 means that 50% of the teachers rated their principal as having a leadership style that was marginally effective. The school climate conponent of emphasis on achievement or commitment had an inverse relationship on the teacher variable of knowledge. A mean score finding of 3.95 means that 50% of the teachers rated this component as slightly effective. The school climate component of expectations and evaluation of students had an inverse relationship on the teacher variable of knowledge. A mean score finding of 3.29 means that 75% of the teachers rated this component unfavorably. The school climate components of both use of test data to evaluate instructional programs and teacher reward had an inverse relatinship on the teacher variables of expectations, job satisfaction, and locus of control. According to the data, teachers rated both of these school climate components unfavorably. The school climate component of safe and orderly environment had an inverse relationship on the teacher variable of job satisfaction, indicating that this was an unfavorable component. Grouping for instruction had a mean score of 3.30 and an inverse relationship on the teacher variable of locus of control. This finding indicated that 50% of the teachers rated this component as marginal effective.

This researcher was unable to find studies to support these findings. A search through the literature indicated that there were two studies (Howard, 1986; R. D. Scott, 1987) that repudiated this finding. Both of these studies revealed that the school's climate influences teachers feeling whether they control their environment. Scott's study (1987) implied that teachers who work in a positive school climate will more than likely be satisfied with their job and exemplify an internal locus of control. One of these job satisfaction factors includes a positive climate (Westbrook, 1988; Young, 1989). Results of Van Putten's study (1987) included a significant relationship between communication satisfaction and job satisfaction. Van Putten implies that school climate affects job satisfaction. Firestone (1989) revealed that there was a significant correlation between job satisfaction and teacher's expectations and the school's climate. Bailey (1989) supported the relationship of school climate and the teacher's expectations. The literature does not include any research that supports or refutes the relationship of the teacher's knowledge to school climate.

Implications

The above findings warrant the following implications:

1. This study suggests that administrators should address those factors that pertain to achievement of at-risk students in reading and mathematics.

2. Specifically, administrators should provide staff development activities relative to the teacher's locus of control, expectations of students and teachers' knowledge of at-risk students.
3. Staff development personnel should be concerned with those factors that affect achievement levels for at-risk students.
4. Perhaps more attention in educational research should be focused on the teacher's locus of control.
5. Even though there was a relationship between reading and the teacher's locus of control, the findings imply that administrators need to be more concerned with implementing strategies that will increase the teacher's locus of control in mathematics.
6. The data from this study indicate that teachers of at-risk students need to have an internal locus of control, to have high expectations of their students, and to apply their knowledge of the at-risk student to their classroom setting.
7. This study further suggests that teachers of at-risk students need to be aware of what factors influence student achievement in reading and mathematics.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings, and implications of this study:

1. That more research is needed in the area of the teacher's locus of control as it pertains to student achievement in reading and mathematics.
2. That since only three of the variables were rejected, it is recommended that further studies be done to identify other teacher variables that may be better predictors of student achievement, such as teacher stress, personality, behavior, and attitudes.
3. That staff development activities be provided for administrators to increase their understanding of what factors are essential for teachers to effectively teach at-risk students.
4. That more research is needed in the areas of the teacher's locus of control, expectations of students, and knowledge of at-risk students in the area of math. Administrators and other educators should first identify teachers of at-risk students who exhibit high levels of internal locus of control, high expectations of their students, and knowledge of their at-risk students, and then employ the case study research technique to find out how these skills are developed.
5. That all teachers of the at-risk students and educational administrators keep abreast of current research, conferences, and workshops on the at-risk child in order to better serve these students.

6. That this study be replicated on another population of teachers, such as special educators or middle class students

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Appendix A: Letters

(Appendix A continued)

June 20, 1989

Dear Colleague:

I am Tiny F. Davis, a Chapter I teacher in the Atlanta Public Schools. I am also a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership Department at Clark Atlanta University.

I am pre-testing my questionnaire and need your cooperation. Please take your time and help me. Your answers are completely anonymous, so I am asking that you don't give your name.

Rate each item as you perceive it as outlined on the cover sheet.

Because this questionnaire is administered to you for pre-testing, please feel free to make comments on any item.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Tiny F. Davis

Tiny F. Davis

(Appendix A continued)

2430 Poole Road S. W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30311
June 30, 1989

Dr. Wilbur Brookover
Urban Affairs Programs
Michigan State University
138 West Owen Hall
East Lansing, MI. 48824

Dear Dr. Wilbur Brookover:

I am presently securing my EdD. in Educational Leadership at Clark Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia. This letter is a request to use your School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument in my dissertation research.

My study is entitled, "Identification of the Knowledge and Attitudes That Teachers Possess in Dealing with the At-Risk Disadvantaged Student.

Thanking you in advance.

Sincerely,

Tiny F. Davis

Tiny F. Davis
Researcher

(Appendix A continued)

July 7, 1989

Dear_____:

I am Tiny F. Davis, a Chapter I teacher in the Atlanta Public Schools. I am also a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership Department at Clark Atlanta University.

You have been selected to receive the enclosed questionnaires. Your assistance in this research project is vitally important and is greatly appreciated.

Your name is requested only for data control. You will not be personally identified once the data is received and the collection process has ended.

A stamped return envelope is provided for your convenience. Please allow me to thank you in advance for your time and consideration of this request.

Sincerely,

Tiny F. Davis

Tiny F. Davis
Graduate Student
Clark Atlanta University

(Appendix A continued)

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

URBAN AFFAIRS PROGRAMS
OWEN GRADUATE CENTER

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1109

August 9, 1989

Ms. Tiny F. Davis
2430 oole Road S.W.
Atlanta, GA 30311

Dear Ms. Davis:

Enclosed is a copy of the School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument. You have our permission to use this instrument in your research study for your EDD in Educational Leadership at Atlanta University.

If I can be of any further assistance to you, please do not hesitate to contact me again.

Cordially,

Wilbur Brookover

Wilbur B. Brookover
Professor Emeritus

WBB/ff

Enclosure

Appendix B: Measurement Tools

(Appendix B continued)

LOCUS OF CONTROL, EXPECTATIONS AND
JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Prepared by Tiny F. Davis

Instructions:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to survey the attitudes and knowledge of teachers who teach the at-risk low-income student. The questionnaire is divided into two sections. The first section includes demographic data and the second section includes statements that assess the attitudes that teachers possess in working with the at-risk low-income child. PLEASE RESPOND TO ALL ITEMS. Read each statement carefully.

Definition of Term

In the following statements the term at-risk low-income students refer to those students from low-income families, living in inner-city neighborhoods, and attending a school in which 90% of the population is made up of low-income students.

(Appendix B continued)

LOCUS OF CONTROL, EXPECTATIONS AND
JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Prepared by Tiny F. Davis

DIRECTIONS FOR RECORDING RESPONSES

Mark each statement according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one.

Circle:
1 - If you disagree very much
2 - If you disagree on the whole
3 - If you disagree a little
4 - If you agree a little
5 - If you agree on the whole
6 - If you agree very much

(Appendix B continued)

GENERAL INFORMATION

This information is being taken to obtain research data for my doctoral dissertation in Educational Administration at Atlanta University to fulfill the degree requirements. It is for statistical purposes only and will be held in confidence. Please provide the following information, and indicate a check by all those that apply.

NAME: _____

SCHOOL: _____

GRADE/SECTION: _____

AGE: 21-30 _____ 31-40 _____ 41 or over _____

SEX: Male _____ Female _____

Qualifications:

B. A.	_____
M. A.	_____
6th Year	_____
7th Year	_____

(Circle One)

	1	2	3	4
Years Experience of teaching at risk students	(1 - 6)	(7 - 13)	(14 - 20)	(21 or over)
Experience in Present School	(1 - 6)	(7 - 13)	(14 - 20)	(21 or over)

My teaching assignment is primarily with grades: (Circle)

1	2	3
(K - 3)	(4 - 5)	(6 - 7)

Number of Courses Took on the Inner-City or Urban Child.

_____ (0), _____(1-2), _____(3 or over)

Number of Inservice Workshops and/or Conferences Attended on the "At Risk" Child, Inner-City Child and/or Dropout.

_____ (0), _____(1-2), _____(3 or over)

I live in the community where I teach. _____ Yes _____ No

Place of Residence: _____

(Appendix B continued)

1.	"At risk" disadvantaged students should not have to deal with creative and high level thinking skills.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2.	"At risk" disadvantaged students are absent from school more than the middle class student, therefore, it is impossible for a teacher to do a good job no matter what.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3.	Regardless of what the teacher does he/she has little influence on helping children from a deprived home.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4.	My "at risk" disadvantaged students don't do well on tests because of their parents' personal problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5.	Teachers of the "at risk" disadvantaged student should not expect these students to perform as well as their middle class counterparts.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6.	"At risk" students generally have little apparent interest in learning and are, therefore, almost unreachable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.	A child's home background is important for school success.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8.	Too many demands placed on the "at risk" student are unrealistic and only causes the child to become frustrated and fail.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9.	I would like to have a transfer to an upper middle class school and not have to deal with the problems associated with "at risk" disadvantaged students.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10.	I have made a contribution to "at risk" disadvantaged students in the past years and I am now presently burned out.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11.	My private life is affected by the serious problems that are associated with teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12.	Teachers who work with the "at risk" disadvantaged student have too many students and an overabundance of paperwork to accomplish their job in a satisfactory manner.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13.	Teaching the "at risk" student gives me a greater opportunity to make a contribution to society than teaching middle class students.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14.	The accumulated mental and physical stress and strain resulting from teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students are making the job of teaching more undesirable with each passing year.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15.	The "at risk" disadvantaged student is so hard to teach that teachers shouldn't have to work with them over five consecutive years.	1 2 3 4 5 6

(Appendix B continued)

16.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students the school should have shower facilities for those children who need to bathe.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students the school should have a clothing bank for those children who might need a change of clothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students I should have high interest, low vocabulary books in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students I need to have a set of computers and the proper software for teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students I must have the right to administer corporal punishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students the school should have a counselor for every 200 students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students I must have a paraprofessional.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students I need to be paid more for my services than teachers of middle class students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	If I am expected to be successful in teaching "at risk" disadvantaged students I need to have a free period during the school day.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	While categories of "at risk" behaviors often correlate with socioeconomic indicators, being "at risk" of dropping out just as having the desire to learn, does not follow simple ethnic or racial lines.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Indicators other than academic ability are significant factors for young people "at risk" of school failure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Some educationally disadvantaged youths have specific and remediable problems; others are "at risk" only because of their socioeconomic profile.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	The rising number of school dropouts is the single most dramatic indicator that schools are failing children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Children born into poverty and neglect often suffer from conditions that impair their ability to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	Head Start currently reaches the majority of eligible children.	1	2	3	4	5	6

(Appendix B continued)

31.	More than 75% of all poor youths have below average basic skills, and almost 50% are in the bottom fifths of basic skills because of poor reading and math skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Early intervention strategies must take precedence over later corrective measures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	Overwhelming increases in crime, drug abuse, neglect, child abuse, teen pregnancies, and poverty have placed the children "at risk" issue high on the political agenda.	1	2	3	4	5	6

(Appendix B continued)

School Learning Climate Assessment Instrument

This instrument has been designed by staff of Michigan State University and the Pontiac City Schools to measure some aspects of the school environment which are known to be related to student learning. It is designed for the professional school staff to use in assessing the school learning climate. In answering the questions please circle the one number which corresponds to your answer. Please answer all the questions, even if you are not sure of an answer. Your responses will not be identified with you in any way. Thank you for your cooperation.

1. In your judgment, how do teachers in other schools rate your school's level of academic achievement?

   Among the best 1
   Slightly better than average 2
   About average 3
   Slightly lower than average. 4
   Among the lowest 5

2. How would you rate the academic ability of students in your school compared to students in other schools?

   Ability here is much higher 1
   Ability here is somewhat higher. . . 2
   Ability here is about average . . . 3
   Ability here is somewhat lower . . . 4
   Ability here is much lower 5

3. How many teachers in your school believe that all their students have the ability to master grade level academic objectives?

   Almost all the teachers 1
   Most of the teachers 2
   Half of the teachers. 3
   Some of the teachers. 4
   Almost none of the teachers 5

(Appendix B continued)

4. What percent of the students in your school do the teachers generally believe are able to master the basic reading/math skills?

90% or more 1
70% - 89% 2
50% - 69% 3
30% - 49% 4
Less than 30% 5

5. On the average, how well do you expect the students in your school to perform?

Much above national norm 1
Slightly above national norm 2
Approximately at national norm . . . 3
Slightly below national norm 4
Much below national norm 5

6. What percent of the students in your school do you expect to complete high school?

90% or more 1
70% - 89% 2
50% - 69% 3
30% - 49% 4
Less than 30% 5

7. What percent of the students in your school do you feel are capable of mastering grade level academic objectives?

90% or more 1
70% - 89% 2
50% - 69% 3
30% - 49% 4
Less than 30% 5

(Appendix B continued)

8. Has the priority of basic skills achievement in your school changed over the last few years?

Increased greatly 1
Increased slightly 2
Remained unchanged 3
Decreased slightly. 4
Decreased greatly 5

HERE IS A LIST OF STATEMENTS ABOUT TEACHERS AND TEACHING AND YOUR SCHOOL. PLEASE INDICATE IF YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
9. The students in your school are told what objectives they are expected to learn.....	5	4	3	2	1
10. All Staff in your school clearly understand their responsibilty for basic skill achievement...	5	4	3	2	1
11.. Your school has a strong feeling of "lets get things done," especially basic skills.....	5	4	3	2	1
12. Teachers feel that nothing they do makes any difference with regard to achievement in your school.....	5	4	3	2	1
13. All teachers in your building care about is "getting by" and picking up their checks...	5	4	3	2	1
14. Teachers in your building will do anything necessary to get all students to read and do math well....	5	4	3	2	1

(Appendix B continued)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
15. In your school teachers are more likely to receive approval from the principal for being good disciplinarians than they are for being good instructors.....	5	4	3	2	1
16. You are not likely to be considered a good teacher in your building if you don't get your paper work in on time.....	5	4	3	2	1
17. The principal praises teachers who don't send many students to his/her office.....	5	4	3	2	1
18. All teachers in this building teach the basic skill objectives identified for their grade level to all their students.....	5	4	3	2	1
19. In your building only those teachers who get all of their students to master grade-level objectives are considered good teachers.....	5	4	3	2	1
20. Your school is a safe and secure place to work.....	5	4	3	2	1
21. Discussions with the principal often result in some aspect of improved instructional practice...	5	4	3	2	1
22. The principal makes frequent formal classroom observations..	5	4	3	2	1
23. The principal reviews and interprets test results with and for the faculty.....	5	4	3	2	1
24. Instructional issues are seldom the focus of faculty meetings...	5	4	3	2	1
25. Criterion-referenced tests are used to assess basic skills throughout the shcool.....	5	4	3	2	1

(Appendix B continued)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Agree
26. The principal uses test results to recommend modifications or changes in the instructional program.....	5	4	3	2	1
27. The principal discusses lesson plans with teachers in relation to instruction...	5	4	3	2	1
28. There is clear, strong, centralized instructional leadership from the principal in your school...	5	4	3	2	1
29. Staff and students do not view security as an issue in your school.....	5	4	3	2	1
30. A positive feeling permeates the school....	5	4	3	2	1
31. The standardized testing program is an accurate and valid measure of the basic skills curriculum in your school...	5	4	3	2	1
32. Standardized test results are not available or are not used to evaluate program objectives...	5	4	3	2	1
33. The physical condition of your school is generally pleasant and well-kept.....	5	4	3	2	1
34. Multiple assessment methods are used to assess student progress in basic skills (e.g., criterion-referenced tests, work samples, mastery check lists, etc.)...	5	4	3	2	1
35. Teachers and the principal thoroughly review and analyze test results to plan instructional program modifications.....	5	4	3	2	1

(Appendix B continued)

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
36.	Teachers, administrators and parents assume responsibility for discipline in your school....	5	4	3	2	1
37.	Student assessment information (such as criterion-referenced tests, skills checklists, etc.) is regularly used to give specific student feedback and plan appropriate instruction....	5	4	3	2	1
38.	The principal regularly brings instructional issues to the faculty for discussion...	5	4	3	2	1
39.	The principal puts much emphasis on the meaning and use of standardized test results....	5	4	3	2	1
40.	The principal frequently communicates to individual teachers their responsibility in relation to student achievement...	5	4	3	2	1
41.	The principal is very active in securing resources, arranging opportunities and promoting staff development activities for faculty..	5	4	3	2	1
42.	The principal leads frequent formal discussions concerning instruction and student achievement...	5	4	3	2	1
43.	The school building is neat, bright, clean and comfortable...	5	4	3	2	1
44.	The principal is accessible to discuss matters dealing with instruction.....	5	4	3	2	1
45.	Supervision is directed at instruction....	5	4	3	2	1
46.	Teachers in your school turn to the principal with instructional concerns or problems....	5	4	3	2	1

(Appendix B continued)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
47. Student behavior is generally positive in your school....	5	4	3	2	1
48. Students in your school abide by school rules.....	5	4	3	2	1
49. In your school there is annual standardized testing at each grade level.....	5	4	3	2	1
50. Class atmosphere in your school is generally very conducive to learning for all students....	5	4	3	2	1
51. The principal is an important instructional resource person in your school....	5	4	3	2	1
52. Discipline is not an issue in your school...	5	4	3	2	1
53. All students are heterogeneously grouped within classrooms with regard to basic skill level...	5	4	3	2	1
54. The principal assigns students to classrooms heterogeneously with regard to basic skill achievement.....	5	4	3	2	1
55. When students are homogeneously grouped in classrooms the groups are changed frequently to prevent labeling....	5	4	3	2	1
56. The school has a clearly defined policy concerning heterogeneous and flexible grouping of students....	5	4	3	2	1
57. Less than five minutes of instruction time is lost as a result of noise, announcements, discipline, and/or organizational activities per hour....	5	4	3	2	1

(Appendix B continued)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
58. The level of teacher attendance is acceptably high....	5	4	3	2	1
59. This school has an effective program to maintain a high level of student attendance...	5	4	3	2	1
60. If students are pulled out of classrooms for special instruction it always increases the total time...	5	4	3	2	1